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MARKET PLACE, YARMOUTH, FROM A PICTURE BY W. H. HUNT.
(The Church as it appeared up to 1863.)

FORMAL TABLE

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LONDON:

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1865.



GREAT YARMOUTH AND LOWESTOFT,

A Handbook for Visitors and Residents;

WITH CHAPTERS ON THE ARCHÆOLOGY, NATURAL
HISTORY, &c., OF THE DISTRICT;

A

HISTORY, WITH STATISTICS, OF THE EAST
COAST HERRING FISHERY,

AND AN

ETYMOLOGICAL AND COMPARATIVE GLOSSARY

OF THE

DIALECT OF EAST ANGLIA.

By JOHN GREAVES NALL.



"Jernemutha habilis urbs in cultu dominorum, domorum venustate, vestium honestate, &c."—WILLIAM OF WORCESTERS' ITINERARY, A.D. 1478.

"This town is in regard of the people civil, for entertainment of strangers courteous, for the sea commodious, for the rivers meeting pleasant, in fish plentiful, and in traffic to foreign parts famous."—MANSHIP'S GREAT YARMOUTH, A.D. 1619.

"Yarmouth, the great and ancient mart of Herringe."—PENNYANT.

LONDON:
LONGMANS, GREEN, READER & DYER.

1866.

P R E F A C E .

A few words may be needed to explain the delay which as the earlier pages of this Guide Book show, has occurred in passing it through the Press. It has occupied most of the writer's intervals of brief leisure during the last five years, with frequent delays arising from the difficulty of collecting materials at a distance from the locality, whilst over the chapters on the Fishery and the Dialect, a constantly growing interest in his subject has led him to dwell, unconscious of the lapse of time and the rapid multiplication of pages.

Now that the work is finished, no one can be more alive to its imperfect execution and the great disproportion of its parts. Much of it he could have wished to recast, more especially the Natural History notices. To this section considerable additions had been prepared, including Chapters upon the Agriculture of the district; and upon the Yarmouth Haven and Roads, based upon Parliamentary Blue Books and Engineering Reports. Want of space has necessitated the cutting down of these to a few skeleton notes in the appendix.

Upon the Glossary of the East Anglian Dialect, considerable labour has been bestowed in the elucidation of its etymologies and the gathering of illustrative quotations from native authors. The etymologies the writer was led to take up, on discovering early in his task that they presented a field of research far less explored than he had surmised, and possessed features of unusual interest. He has lingered over them many months, reluctant to confess himself baffled at the derivation of a single word in the Glossary, and it will be seen that increasing familiarity with his work has rendered the latter portion of it more complete than the earlier. Of this earlier part many important corrections will be found in the Appendix, where also additional words have been given, and the number of conjectural etymologies greatly reduced.

To C. J. PALMER, Esq., F.S.A.,
THIS HANDBOOK,
(OF A LOCALITY WHICH HIS WRITINGS FIRST MADE
INTERESTING TO THE AUTHOR,)
IS INSCRIBED.

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INTRODUCTION.

THE Visitor's approach to Great Yarmouth is most commonly made by the Eastern Counties Railway from Norwich. The line for the last few miles winds round the northern banks of the Breydon Water, and from this point, looking out of the carriage window across the lake, he will see stretched out before him a panorama of houses, shipping, trees, and water, all picturesquely intermingled, and extending north and south in a lengthened and imposing perspective. The eye travels from point to point, from church spires and towers, along the roofs of public buildings, warehouses, and factories, to the top masts of shipping, and the sails and cappings of gigantic windmills. Each extremity of the landscape has its fitting termination, the venerable tower and spire of St. Nicholas' Church defining the northern limit; the lofty and graceful proportions of the Nelson Column, with the heights of Gorleston, the extreme southern boundary.

This western prospect is the point of view the old topographers chose to engrave, and the ancient annalists of Yarmouth loved to dilate on. Three centuries ago, when strongly fortified, its appearance was probably far more striking. *Nashe*, one of its earliest chroniclers, writing in 1599, exultingly describes the town in the Euphuistic hyperbole fashionable in his day:—

“Do but convert the slenderest twinkling reflex of your eyesight to this flinty ring that engirts it, these towered walls, portculised gates, and gorgeous architectures that condecorate and adorn it. A town it is that in rich situation exceedeth many cities, . . . out of an hill or heap of sand reared and forced from the sea most miraculously, and by the singular policy and incessant inestimable expence of the inhabitants, firmly piled and rampired against the fumes waves’ battery . . . look wistly upon the walls, which, if you mark, make a stretched out quadrangle with the haven. They have sixteen towers upon them, mounts underfonging and inflanking them, which have their thundering tools to compel Diego Spaniard to duck, and strike the wind cholic into his paunch, if he prance too near them, and will not veil to the Queen of England. . . . Gates to let in her friends, and shut out her enemies, Yarmouth hath ten, lanes, seven score: as for her streets, they are as long as three score streets in London, and yet they divide them into but three.”

Few towns, if any, standing on so limited an area, present an aspect so imposing, whether viewed by land or sea. This advantage is derived from its situation on a peninsula, which lying at the confluence of three large rivers, the Yare, the Waveney, and the Bure, is bounded by them on the west and south, whilst on the east runs the German Ocean. Lying directly opposite the coast of Holland, a constant intercourse has been maintained with it, and the traveller who has visited that country will find himself continually reminded, in the external and internal features of Yarmouth, of the peculiarities of the Dutch people. We propose as we go along, to point out some of these. At this moment, whilst nearing Yarmouth, we are struck with the resemblance, which its spires and windmills heighten, to the approach to Amsterdam from Haarlem. Entering Yarmouth, the visitor will find it wears a threefold appearance—its riverside, with its line of quays and havens, thronged with the busy traffic of its fisheries, shipping, and inland commerce, proclaim it the chief seaport in

the Eastern Counties. In its spacious Market Place, and central street of shops and private houses, he may imagine himself dropped in the heart of some prosperous old-fashioned country town. Five minutes' walk will take him to the third and most recent development of Yarmouth—its long sea beach, lined with a noble range of terraces, piers, and promenades, wearing all the externals of a fashionable watering place of the first class, and fronting a sea prospect sublime in the vastness of its horizon—an horizon studded with a crowd of vessels filling the expanse with life and movement, and hourly diversified by the continuous changes in their picturesque and varied outlines. Endowed with such advantages, and deriving its prosperity from sources independent of the caprice of fashion and its pleasure seekers, the growth of Yarmouth has been unusually rapid of late years, and bids fair to go on increasing.

The environs of Yarmouth are full of interest to the archæologist, the artist, and the naturalist. The neighbourhood is rich in fine old churches, exhibiting in their round towers, rood screens, and panelled flint work, features peculiar to the district. These, with the exploration of the adjacent Roman and Mediæval ruins, will furnish ample inducements for a variety of excursions, both inland and along the coast. Rambles on the beach and upon the cliffs will supply abundant gatherings for the especial tastes of the geologist and botanist. The marshes abound in rare plants and insects: the broads in unusually good sport, boating, fishing, and shooting. Excursions up the rivers will delight the lover of nature with glimpses of her quiet haunts of loveliness. All the chief cities, cathedrals, and abbeys of East Anglia are within easy distance by rail. Last, and not least, the town itself, with its old

towers, walls, haven, and rows, and its inhabitants, (until of late a somewhat isolated race, with their own peculiar dialect and usages,) each and all have stamped upon them an individuality of character, strongly marked, distinct, and deeply impressed. The various accessories blend together into one harmonious picture, the intellectual charm of which will be felt the more it is studied, like some Dutch painting, low in tone, subdued in colour, but admirable in keeping. Blank indeed and unfurnished must that mind be which cannot find, within the brief limits of a seaside visit to Yarmouth, objects of amusement and interest, sufficient to ward off the plague of dulness.

In describing the past and present of Yarmouth, we propose to treat it in the threefold aspect in which we have classed it above.* The materials for compiling a Guide Book are embarrassing from their abundance. The folios of *Blomefield*, the quartos of *Manship*, *Swinden*, and *Palmer*, and the octavos of *Dawson Turner*, *Preston*, *Druery*, and other writers, together with a mass of local pamphlets, itineraries, and guide books, make up a collection of topography truly formidable, and testify to the honest pride which its native historians have felt in the glories of their ancient town. To those who take an interest in the subject, we would single out three of the books cited above, as of especial value. *Manship's History of Great Yarmouth* is the oldest and most authentic record of the town, its charters, early annals, and corporate usages. He was appointed town clerk in 1579, and his work is a digest of the labours of a committee of the corporation, which sat for two months, daily examining all the

* "The streets in number be three, which be contained in the Dene, Middle and Keyside."—*Manship*, 1619.

record rolls and documents accessible. As such it is invaluable to the town and its authorities. The general reader will be interested by the quaintness of its style, and the deep love and admiration he manifests in almost every page for his native place. *Swinden's History and Antiquities of Great Yarmouth*, published in 1722, is the pains-taking work of an antiquary of the old school, and is useful for the numerous charters, statutes, and documents which fill its pages.

The *History of Great Yarmouth*, by O. J. Palmer, with his *Annotated Manship's History*, recently published in 2 volumes, 4to, form the latest and most important contribution to the history of the locality. It is impossible to read them without sharing his regret that the materials for the entire work were not in his hands at the commencement of his task, so as to have been moulded into their just proportions. This gentleman has unrolled the annals of Great Yarmouth, wiping off the mustiness and dust of centuries, and, stripping away the legal jargon and technicalities which encumber its documents, has presented to the public their pith and substance in a style of singular clearness, as attractive as it is rare in antiquarian histories. His analyses of its charters, customs, and usages, condense much curious matter, and his narratives of its ecclesiastical, municipal, and parliamentary history, filled with the struggles of hostile parties and rival creeds, give a vivid reflex of the greater conflicts fought out on wider arenas in the most memorable periods of our history. In his pages we see in this ancient borough a microcosm of England, endowed with vigorous vitality, and marked with a strong native individuality. The history of the Yarmouth corporation curiously illustrates the partiality and aptitude of the English race

for local self-government. At the present moment when the study of history is being directed into new channels, and the daily life and social condition of the people in each successive century are being investigated with a zeal and interest heretofore unusual, we know of no other work which gives so many instructive glimpses of the bygone social, religious, commercial, and municipal features of an ancient country town.

Preston's Picture of Great Yarmouth, published in 1819, is illustrated with aquatint engravings of the principal public buildings (many of which, in the already brief interval, have undergone considerable alterations,) and *Druery's Notices of Great Yarmouth*, 1826, derives a certain value from its lists of the numerous paintings and works of art in the possession of the principal inhabitants at that period.

So many Guide Books of Yarmouth have appeared from time to time, that we have not felt justified in issuing a new one, without endeavouring to introduce a variety of fresh features. Preceding notices of the town have been written by its natives or residents. In this, drawn up by a stranger, an attempt is made to present the aspect of the town as it may appear to the eye of any visitor who explores it properly, and feels his interest in it sufficiently roused to induce him to make himself acquainted with its past history. Particulars of the municipal, ecclesiastical, and political history of the town, of its herring and mackerel fisheries, and of the geology, natural history, and archæology of the district will be found grouped together in successive chapters. As it was impossible to condense every noteworthy incident of the ancient records of Yarmouth within the narrow limits of a guide book—two editions have been prepared, the cheaper for visitors,

the enlarged edition with plates, more especially for the resident inhabitants. This last has an appendix of the more important charters and public documents of Yarmouth, its criminal records, biographical notices of its chief worthies, extracts from its scarce fugitive literature, and notes on the dialect, agriculture, and natural history of the district. A few copies have been printed on large paper for illustration, and contain photographs from old prints of the locality, &c.

Our description of its neighbourhood extends along the coast from Cromer to Southwold. During the season excursions are made weekly by steamer to these two sea side resorts, both well worthy a visit. From the absence of facilities of communication, the inland intercourse between Yarmouth and the northern parts of Norfolk is but slight compared to that with Lothingland and Lowestoft. To this portion of the district therefore more attention has been paid, and every village noticed as fully as our limits will allow. Visitors to Yarmouth rarely fail to avail themselves of the multiplied facilities of making an excursion to Lowestoft, and the same thing occurs *vice versa*. An account of this beautiful and rising town is given, more full it is believed than any at this moment in print, together with a visit to Somerleyton, made in the autumn of 1861, supplying ample details of this superb mansion, its gardens, conservatories, show rooms, pictures, and grounds. From Lowestoft the villages lying southwards as far as Dunwich have been explored and briefly described. Nothing of interest in Southwold and Beccles has been overlooked intentionally. For a variety of antiquarian details the writer must express his obligations to the county histories of Norfolk by *Blomefield* and *Chambers*, and that of Suffolk by *Suckling*.

EARLY HISTORY OF YARMOUTH.

"I purpose not in the like nice respect to leap over the laudable pedigree of Yarmouth, but will fetch her from her swadling clouts or infancy; and reveal to you when and by whom she was first forced out of the ocean's arms, and started up and aspired to such starry sublimity; as also acquaint you with the notable immunities, franchises and privileges she is endowed with, beyond all her confiners, by the descending line of Kings from the conquest."—**NASHE'S LENTEN STUFF, 1599.**

Yarmouth, the eighth port of England, and a corporate and borough town, with a population, at the census of 1861, of 34,803, lies at the extreme south eastern point of the county of Norfolk, a short distance below the confluence of the three rivers, Yare, Waveney, and Bure, which mingling together above the town, after draining the valleys of Norfolk and Suffolk over an area exceeding 1,400 miles, form the lake of Breydon Water.* The narrow outlet by which these waters are discharged into the sea is all that remains of a vast estuary, which once covered the broad valley extending from Norwich to Yarmouth, together with the vales now traversed by the Bure and Waveney, extending over the district bounded by Caister, Reedham, Norwich, Bungay, Harleston, and Haddiscoe. This estuary communicated with the sea by three openings, the most northern between Happisburgh and Horsey, the central between Caister and Gorleston, and the southernmost between Lowestoft and Kirtley. The central was the widest, being about four miles across, and in its midst lay a large shoal, now forming the low sandy peninsula on which Yarmouth is built. The local borough area, before the addition of Gorleston under the Reform Bill, was but 1,460 acres. The earliest mention of it is as a mere fishing station on a bank of sand, to which the fishermen from the opposite

* The district includes ten principal valleys having the outfall of their collected streams at Yarmouth haven. About 150 square miles, or 100,000 acres are occupied by these valleys. The drainage of great part of Norfolk and Suffolk is effected by means of Yarmouth haven, and comprises 1,200 square miles in Norfolk, and 220 in Suffolk.—**TAYLOR'S GEOLOGY OF NORFOLK.**

coasts of Holland and Normandy were attracted. "May it please the whole generation of my auditors to be advertised," writes Nashe* "how that the noble earth, where the town of Great Yarmouth is now mounted, and where so much fish is sold, in the days of yore hath been the place where you might have caught fish, and as plain a sea water these 600 years as any boat could tumble in, and so was the whole level of the marshes between it and Norwich."† This large sheet of water began to disappear as early as the fifth century; the sand collected at its entrance forming under the action of the waters an island, which gradually extending to the main land, became the peninsula on which Yarmouth is built. How the waters were expelled, and the silt and sand deposited, is a question which has excited frequent discussion. By some it has been attributed to the currents of the ocean which, running north east and south west, have slowly worn away the friable cliffs of the eastern coast, engulfing towns, villages, and forests, and depositing the debris of chalk lying on the ancient sea margins, and sand wherever an opening or eddy offered. The opposite country, Holland, formed by the deposit of the Rhine, is instanced as a parallel case. Mr. Roberts, in his *Geological and Historical Observations on the Eastern*

* Thomas Nashe was a Lowestoft man, born in 1558, a B.A. of St. John's College, Cambridge, and one of the ablest Euphuistic writers of the Elizabethan age. His very rare tract on Great Yarmouth, reprinted in the Harleian Miscellany, vol. II, is a characteristic and favourable specimen of the literary fustian of his day;—

"Taffata phrases, silken terms, precise,
Three piled hyperboles, spruce affectation,
Figures pedantical."

It is entitled "Nashe's Lenten Stuff concerning the description and first promotion and increase of the town of Great Yarmouth, in Norfolk, with a New Play never played before, of the Praise of the Red Herring. Fit of all Clerks of Noblemen's kitchens to be read; and not unnecessary by all serving men who have short board-wages to be remembered." The principal passages of this scarce and curious work are given in the Appendix.

† Ives, the antiquary, first called attention to an old map of the *Gariensis Oetium*, as it was supposed to exist during the Roman occupation of Britain. This map is now deposited in the corporation chest, and is said to have been copied from one still earlier. It has been engraved, also one distinguishing the high lands from the low, and another entitled Roman Norfolk, in which the principal Roman stations are laid down.

Valleys of Norfolk,* contends that the change "is the result of a depression of the German Ocean itself, which is now at least 40 feet below the height where there is evidence of its having been stationary at some distant period," and instances various data to confirm his theory. Mr. Richard Taylor in reply issued his '*Geology of East Norfolk*' based on personal observations and surveys extending over a number of years, which had led him to conclusions totally opposed to those of Mr. Roberts. He argues that the changes were effected at distant intervals, all occurring during the antediluvian epochs, and that there has been no sensible alteration in the quantity or elevation of the tidal waters in the estuary, since man's existence in this island.

The Romans who held this country, from A.D. 80 until their departure in 446, gave to this broad estuary the name of Gariensis, and guarded its entrance by military stations, at Caister in the north, and Burgh in the south, to which latter they gave the name of *Garianonum*.† Here the Roman cavalry were stationed to keep the natives in subjection, and protect the coast from the invasions of the northern hordes, who for many centuries harassed and plundered Britain.

Spelman, in proof that the sands of Yarmouth were submerged down to a late period, has adduced the mournful legend of Lothbroc, or Lodbrog, the Dane, who hawking on the coast of Denmark was driven by a sudden tempest across the sea, and carried by it up the Yare to Reedham, where Edmund, king of the East Angles, held his court. The royal Dane was hospitably entertained, but rousing the jealousy of Berne,

* For an abstract of the able controversy between Mr. Roberts and Mr. Taylor, on the geological changes of the district and the periods of their probable occurrence, see Appendix.

† Gar was the original name of the river on which Yarmouth is built, softened by the Anglo Saxons into Yar. Gar is the name of rivers in all Celtic countries; thus we have Gar-onne in France, and Gar-ry in Blair Athol. This syllable gar, may be referred to the word gair, a noise; gar-ion "the noisy or swelling river" would be equivalent to gar-onne, and gar-mud (the Teutonic d being pronounced like th) "the noisy or swelling mouth," is expressive of the wide and boisterous estuary which existed in the Anglo-Saxon times.—PALMER.

the king's huntsman, by his superior prowess, was basely murdered in the woods. The corpse was tracked by Lodbrog's faithful hound; and Berne, found guilty, placed in Lodbrog's boat, was committed to the mercy of the waves, which hurried him to Denmark, where stretched upon the rack he falsely charged King Edmund with the crime. Hinguar and Hubba, sons of the murdered man, assembled an army of 20,000 men, and after ravaging East Anglia, defeated and took prisoner Edmund at Thetford, and beheaded him, thus closing the Saxon dynasty in 870.

In the year 1004, the Danish Monarch Sweyn, with a powerful fleet, sailed up to Norwich, which he plundered and burnt; and in the beginning of the thirteenth century, Norwich was still a port frequented by foreign merchants, whose vessels paid there the harbour toll to the king, of "fourpence for every ship of bulk, and twopence for every boat." Before this time however, the sand bank at the entrance of the Yare had reared its head above the waters, and become the resort at stated periods of fishermen, whose huts gradually assumed the dimensions of a town, styled *Giermud*. Here were attracted the fishermen from Norway, Holland, France, and many English ports, during the herring fishery, curing the fish in booths or tents, and drying their nets upon the sands. The advantageous position of Yarmouth at the embouchure of so many streams naturally attracted to it the commerce of the district. It grew rapidly into importance after the Norman Conquest had consolidated England under one sceptre. In the survey of England, made by the Conqueror in 1086, we find the first authentic notice of Yarmouth, claimed by the Conqueror as one of the Royal Demesnes. The entry in *Domesday Book* runs thus:—

"*East Hundred of Fleg.* King Edward held Yarmouth. There were always seventy Burgesses; then it was valued with two parts soke of three hundred, £18 by tale; and the Earl's part was £9 by tale. Now the King's two parts are £17 15s. 4d. Blancs; and the Earl's part is £10 Blancs; and the Sheriff has four pounds and

one hawk, in the time of King Edward, for a fine. These four pounds the Burgesses give gratis, and in friendship. In the same, in King Edward's time, Almarus, the Bishop, had a certain church of St. Bennet, the same now has William the Bishop of the diocese, and is valued at twenty shillings. The whole pays 12d. for Geld." These seventy burgesses were the merchants and traders of the town. During the time the Burgh was in the Royal hands, *i. e.* till the reign of John, it was governed by a Provost, who collected the king's customs. The barons of the Cinque Ports were invested by that sovereign with an extensive admiralty jurisdiction. These ports, (originally Dover, Sandwich, Hastings, Romney, and Hythe,) from their proximity to the coast of France, were deemed the most important in the kingdom, and received many valuable privileges and immunities, chiefly from king John, in requital of their aid in his attempts to regain his Norman dominions. As early as the reign of Edward the Confessor, the right of *Den* and *Strond* was conferred on them, giving their fishermen the privilege to dry their nets upon the denes or downs of Yarmouth, and to make fast their vessels to the shore. When Yarmouth became the resort of a "greate store of sea faringe men, as also of great numbers of the fishermen of France, Flanders, and of Holland, Zealande, and of all the lowe countries yerelie from the feast of St. Michell the archangell, untylle the feaste of Sainte Martine, about the takinge, sellinge, and buyinge, of herringes," the barons of the Cinque ports, as the rulers of the coast were accustomed to send their bailiffs to Yarmouth to see that order was preserved. This right of jurisdiction and interference (which, according to Manship, commenced with the Saxon kings, and ceased in 1619—a period of nearly 600 years,) with the local authorities, and with the privileges granted to the burgesses of Yarmouth, appears to have been jealously resented from the first by the men of Yarmouth,* and led to a succession of bloody feuds, fought out by sea and land, when and

* It was not exclusive but concurrent with that of the magistrates of the town, and the struggle for supremacy between the two became a constant source of strife, especially after king John had sold his rights to the town for a fee farm rent.

wherever the seamen of Yarmouth and those of the south ports encountered, causing lamentable loss of life and destruction of shipping, and originating a continuous succession of law suits. This visitation of the bailiffs took place at the Free Fair of herrings held yearly for six weeks in the autumn, and seems, from the concourse of people* who attended it, to have been one of the most important fairs of the middle ages. Its staple was the herring. Here the fishing vessels of the east coast and all the neighbouring shores landed their cargoes, and sold them to a multitude of buyers congregated from all parts, unfettered by any restrictions, laying out a considerable portion of their receipts in provisions, netting, wares, and the refitting and general replenishing of their boats. The vast influx of population required extraordinary precautions for the maintenance of order, the settlement of disputes, and the enforcement of proper police and sanitary arrangements.† Interesting details of the ceremonials of these annual visits, the judicial forms, and the hospitalities observed during the Free Fair by the magistrates of Yarmouth and their visitors will be found in the pages of Manship and Palmer. We abridge from the older writer's narration of the usual course of procedure:—

“The Cinque Ports exercised in turn the right of nominating the bailiffs, who on the vigil of the feast day of St. Michael, repaired to Yarmouth, to a house hired for the purpose, bringing with them their learned counsel, town clerk, two serjeants bearing white rods, a brazen horn sounder, one carrying a banner of the arms of the ports, and a jailer. On being come thither, the bailiffs of Yarmouth the same evening and some of their brethren attended at their lodging, and courteously did entertain and welcome them. Next morning all repaired to church to hear divine service, they of Yarmouth

* “There is yearly in September the worthiest herring fishery in Europe, which draweth great concourse of people, which maketh the town much the richer all the year following, but very unsavoury for the time.”—*Speed's Chronicle*, 1611.

† “Among the articles of the free fair proclaimed in the reign of Queen Elizabeth were the following:—Every master of every ship to have his whole fellowship ‘within the shippes bourde from the goenge down of the sonne unto the sonne arisenge.’ That no taverner selle corrupt wyne. That no brewer selle, nor doe to be solde a gallon of the beste ale above two-pence, a gallon of the second ale above one penny.”

inviting the others to take their places with them in their seats. Then do the bailiffs of Yarmouth with their brethren in their scarlet robes adjourn to the toll house, when the new bailiffs, having taken their charge, and their justices, constables, and other officers being chosen and sworn, they do immediately send for the barons aforesaid, who coming thither, at their first entrance, deliver some short speech, showing who they be, whence and wherefore they come hither, and claiming to be received and respected accordingly. Then their commissions being read, they take their places (and not before) with the bailiffs of Yarmouth. Having viewed the prisoners in the gaol, and fixed the holding of the first court of the free fair, they break up—the senior bailiff of Yarmouth inviting the company to dinner, and his corporation to supper. The first court day is holden in a very solemn manner. A party inquest called "*the quest of the free fair*," viz., six men of Yarmouth, and six of the Ports men brought hither for the purpose, are charged and sworn to inquire into all misdemeanours committed during the free fair. [The cases brought before them principally related to "breaking of heads," and disputes among the fishermen.] Next week, on the holding of the second court, the festivities were renewed, sundry of the aldermen with their wives being also invited. And here I may not overpass with a silent pen, the exceeding bountiful fare, feasting, and royal cheer and open house keeping wherewith the Cinque Ports' bailiffs do give entertainment in their fair house, in, by, and during the one and twenty days of their abiding at Yarmouth. And that the same may be better performed, they do commonly bring sixteen or eighteen hogsheads of excellent beer from home with them. Besides the aforesaid, by way of requital, or kind farewell of Yarmouth, do solemnly hold a very costly and sumptuous feast in the third week of their abiding for the bailiffs, aldermen, and other the substantialer sort of the inhabitants, with their wives also: (yet be not any good fellows excluded,) which being finished, with most kind congratulations each to other, they do depart homeward, when at a certain day and place appointed, they do declare to the whole brotherhood assembled, all their proceedings and acts passed at Yarmouth, which is by the said company commended or discommended accordingly. And so there is an end of that year's business."

These visits did not always end so amicably. In the reign of Edward I, one of the bailiffs of the Cinque Ports "doing his office at Yarmouth," was by one of the bailiffs of Yarmouth killed, "for which he, as deservedly, was hanged."

The prosperity of Yarmouth, during the reigns of our early sovereigns, when so many trades were crippled by patents, monopolies, and restrictions, may be fairly

ascribed to the freedom which was enjoyed in the herring fishery; the right which all possessed of bringing on shore the fish they had caught, and selling it to the best advantage without let or hindrance. Attempts to forestall and to monopolize the trade were met by various statutes and enactments. Fish was not to be sold until it was landed, brokers and middle men were discountenanced. It was the order in council, issued by Charles I, prohibiting the Dutch from fishing off Yarmouth, which first struck a fatal blow at the freedom of the Yarmouth fisheries;* and the herring fair died out in course of years.† The corporation

* In A.D. 1285, on the occasion of the marriage of Elizabeth, daughter of Edward I, with John, Count of Holland, a commercial treaty highly advantageous to the Dutch was concluded. The great staple of English wool was fixed at Dordrecht, and the Dutch permitted to fish without restriction off the Yarmouth coast, in mari nostro. This gave an immense impetus to their fisheries. In 1416, the first large herring seine was manufactured at Hoorn. In 1408, Charles the Bold, the ruler of the Low Countries, married Margaret of York, sister of Edward IV. Soon after, the famous interview occurred at Peronne, between Charles and his great rival Louis XI, so powerfully related in Scott's "Quentin Durward." In the treaty which ensued, the unmolested right of the Netherlands to the herring fishery was stipulated. In 1496, the grant of Edward I, was reconfirmed by Henry VIII. So important was deemed this fishery, that, in 1536, during the greatest heat and passion of the struggle for European supremacy, between Francis I. and Charles V, it was agreed that the herring fisheries of both nations should remain unmolested. On the accession of James I, every one was forbidden to fish without having first obtained a license. This led to an embassy being fitted out from Holland, to request the renewal of their ancient privileges, and on their representation of its vital importance to the well being of the Dutch, who to the number of 60,000 gained their livelihood by the herring fishery, the prohibition was removed. The discontent of the English, at witnessing the lucrative results of this trade in the hands of their commercial rivals, was so loudly expressed in the reign of Charles I, as to lead to his order in council, in 1636, prohibiting this fishery in the English and Irish seas, except upon license granted. In this Charles followed the maxims laid down in the celebrated "Mare Clausum" of Selden, published the year previous, claiming for Great Britain the exclusive right over the seas surrounding its coasts, and written in reply to the great work of Grotius, the "Mare Liberum," the earliest and ablest exponent of the rights of free trade upon the high seas. An embassy immediately dispatched to entreat the revocation of this edict was fruitless, and it was to carry out its prohibitions, and to maintain the sovereignty of the seas against France and Holland united, that Charles put the powerful fleet to sea, to defray the expenses whereof he resorted to that levy of ship money which, in the grave results which followed, forms the most memorable incident in the annals of English history.

† The shadow of the once famous Free Fair remained long after its substantial traffic had ceased. It was the usage of the Dutch fishing boats to sail for Yarmouth several days before the 21st September, the day on which the herring fishery was virtually commenced by what was called "wetting their nets." The Sunday previous was termed "Dutch Sunday," and a fair held, with booths extended along the quay. An eyewitness, in 1785, has thus described the scene:—

sought to monopolize the trade to the town, and the right of setting a fixed price on the take, re-selling it at an enhanced price, and adding the profits to their revenues. Great injury naturally resulted to the town from this selfish policy, which was broken down by the resistance, in 1709, of Mr. Andrews, one of the aldermen, who defeated the corporation in the Court of Exchequer, and established the right "that it is unlawful to set the price, or to make any restraint or demand, or to take any toll upon any sea fish brought into the realm by any British subjects."

The rights of the barons of the Cinque Ports over Yarmouth are set forth in the charter of 1277, granted by Edward I. They were to enjoy peaceably such

"With the afternoon's tide the Dutchmen began to enter the haven's mouth; and it was pleasing to see them proceed, one after another, up the river to the town, a distance of about two miles, all open to view. They moored along a quay, just without the south gate, in a regular line, with their heads to the shore and their sides touching each other. These schuyts are small decked vessels, with a single mast and running bowsprit: they are flat bottomed, with lee boards; and extremely broad heads and sterns, which are adorned with paintings. Their sails have a yellow dye, which is thought to preserve them, and certainly has a gay appearance; they have all striped pendants. The crews usually consist of eight men and boys. Of these vessels about fifty came up this year. All of them arrived in the course of Friday evening: and at night I took a walk to view them by moonlight. The long line of masts, exactly uniform, the yards and furled sails disposed in a regular row, the crews sitting on deck with their pipes, calmly enjoying their repose, and conversing in a strange tongue, impressed the imagination in a forcible but pleasing manner: the quiet and order which reigned among so large a number, was much to be admired. On Saturday the streets were sprinkled with parties of Dutchmen, easily distinguished by their round caps, short jackets, and most capacious breeches. They went about making purchases, consisting principally of coarse beef and a few common utensils. On the ensuing Sunday, called 'Dutch Sunday,' all the country round, as far as Norwich, flocked to see the show. The Dutch did honour to their visitors, by decorating their schuyts with flags, in the gayest manner they were able. The whole length of the quay was crowded by people of all ranks, in their best apparel. On the denes were scattered various walking and riding parties, especially many of the vehicles called Yarmouth carts: the Dutch vessels forming a gay line in front; whilst in the rear might be seen a large fleet of vessels majestically sailing through the roads. It was a view equally striking and singular, and not to be matched in any part of the kingdom."

"Dutch Sunday" is still remembered by the old inhabitants of Yarmouth. After its discontinuance for many years, during the war with France, it was revived for a short period at the peace of 1814. The fleet of Dutch herring schuyts entered Yarmouth Roads, and drew up on the beach, where a fair was held of apples, gingerbread made with honey, tobacco pipes of curious form, &c. The rekindled "orange boven" loyalty of the Dutch was displayed in a red or orange streak dabbed on the sou'westers of the fishermen. After taking in water, the herring fleet set sail. As the novelty wore off, the custom gradually died out.

rents as they were seized of; have the keeping of the king's peace in the time of the fair, during forty days doing royal justice with the bailiffs of Yarmouth, with whom they were jointly to determine all plaints, and to have the joint keeping of the prison. They were to amerce the people of the ports, and to receive twopence from every ship "customable," for sustaining beacon fires at the usual places, and instead of their claim of fourpence upon every vessel "customable," they were to receive at their departure from the Yarmouth bailiffs the fixed sum of £6. And the barons were to make no distresses by sea or land, without the concurrence of the bailiffs; the merchants were to sell their goods freely, by their own hands, without restraint by the bailiffs, they paying the customs; they were to take nothing from minstrels and women of pleasure frequenting the fair; and the barons were to take nothing "in right of fenestrage and stallage."*

Whilst the Cinque Ports fell into decay, Yarmouth rose in importance, and the disputes which occurred from time to time were chiefly on questions of precedence, the bailiffs of Yarmouth shewing but scant civility. These visitations grew every year more irksome, and after praying the king in council to be "discharged of the great cost and fruitless service of their bailiffs to Yarmouth," in 1662 they were discontinued.

A provost was appointed by Henry I, to collect the duties and execute justice. To obtain a control over the growing taxation, the burgesses strove to procure the enactment of an annual fixed rent, to be paid in perpetuity, and by offering to King John a larger sum than had heretofore been raised, he was induced to grant a charter constituting Yarmouth a free burgh for ever, at a fee farm rent of £55,† which is paid at the present day. This payment freed the town from all customs or taxes previously imposed. Other important privi-

* On goods exposed for sale in windows and on stalls.

† Fee Farm.—a perpetual farm or rent. A tenure of lands without homage, fealty, or other service; but reserving a rent in money, or provisions which, if unpaid for two years, the lands might be recovered.

leges were added,—the right of judging causes within the burgh; the right of levying tolls in their own market, and being exempt from toll in all others; freedom from tolls on roads and bridges; or of rent charges for stalls and standings in other fairs and markets; the right of judging felons taken in the burgh.* A merchant's guild was granted them, virtually a corporation, and the power of choosing their chief magistrate, first entitled a bailiff, and subsequently mayor, a term denoting the chief or senior alderman.

The charter of 1272, granted by Henry III., is the earliest in which the prefix of "Great" is conferred on Yarmouth. A charter of considerable importance, from the litigation it gave rise to subsequently, was that of Edward I., 1306. Henry III. had exchanged the royal fee farm of Yarmouth and Lothingland with John de Baliol, father of the King of Scots, for certain lands in Cheshire, and the De Baliols had for many years levied customs and tolls in the port of Yarmouth, in defiance of the charter of King John.† When the younger De Baliol, on succeeding to the Scottish throne, renounced his homage to Edward I., his English estates were forfeited.

The burgesses applied to Edward for a favourable interpretation of the charter of his father Henry, which in obscure terms required all merchandise and wares, as well of fish as of other goods, brought to the port of Great Yarmouth, to be unladen at the town, and no where else within the ports. This, the king, whilst granting Baliol's estates to his nephew John de Britanny, Earl of Richmond, confirmed. The dwellers on the south side the river, at Gorleston and Lothingland,

* We have a painful illustration of the great severity of the criminal jurisprudence of mediæval times in the gaol delivery of the Sessions held at Yarmouth, 23 Edward I., when ten persons were executed for various trifling thefts. See Criminal Records of Yarmouth in the Appendix.

† In defiance of the town charters, the Baliols enforced the following customs. Eighteen pence for every foreign ship trading to or from Yarmouth; four pence every English ship; for every cart or horse load of merchandise passing through their manor, one halfpenny; for every last of herrings imported by foreign merchants, four pence; every stall, four pence; for every window where bread was placed to sell, four pence.

stoutly resisted this monopoly, but notwithstanding a prolonged litigation (in which they pleaded ancient prescription from the days of Canute,) judgment was given against them. Repeated efforts to curtail the unfair privileges of Yarmouth were subsequently made by the inhabitants of Lothingland, aided by the Earl of Richmond, but without success, and the controversy dropped after continuing 100 years.*

The burgesses of Great Yarmouth appear to have used the privileges granted them by their charters to enrich themselves at the cost of their neighbours, whose indignation was very naturally aroused. In 1331 a suit was renewed between Norwich and Yarmouth (commenced in 1327,) in which the latter were charged with taking toll and other customs against the liberties of the city charters, all of which were produced. The burgesses of Yarmouth pleaded the charter of Edward I, creating it a port. When called on to produce it, they dropped the suit, but shortly after, enraged at Norwich being created a staple town, proceeded so far as to stop all ships, vessels, and boats from coming through their port to the city.†

This thoroughly roused the citizens of Norwich, who carried the matter before Edward III, pleading—

“That Norwich was a mercantile and trading town, and one of the royal cities of England, situate on the bank of a water and arm

• By this controversy between the burgh of Great Yarmouth and the men of Little Yarmouth and Gorleston, in Lothingland, it appears that prescription, seeing they were no burghs, prevailed not to assert and make good a liberty of unlading goods and exposing them to sale in these towns. Liberties belonging to free burghs are only to be had by king's charter; and if used without it, esteemed usurpations, specially if practised to the prejudice of a free burgh.—BRADY ON ENGLISH BURGHS.

† At a very early period the district appears to have acquired a reputation for its litigious spirit. “The goodness of the soil may be gathered from hence, that the inhabitants are of a bright clear complexion, not to mention their sharpness of wit, and their singular sagacity in the study of our common law, so that it is at present and always has been reputed the most fruitful nursery of lawyers, and to the law some of the best families in it owe their rise. Even among the common people you may meet with many, who (as one expresses it), if no quarrel occurs, are able to pick one out of the quirks and niceties of the law; and for the preventing of the great and frequent contentions that might ensue thereupon, and the inconvenience of too many attorneys, a special statute was made (33 Henry VI, c. 7) as long since as the time of Henry VI. to restrain the number of attorneys in Norfolk, Suffolk, and Norwich.—CAMDEN'S BRITANNIA.

of the sea, which extended from thence to the main ocean, upon which ships, etc., have immemorially come to their market, which is held every day in the week ; and to their public marts or fairs, which are held twice in the year, with all manner of merchandise, as well foreigners and strangers as Englishmen and denizens ; and all this, long before Yarmouth was in being, even when the place on which that now stands was main sea ; and that ever since to this time they have used this their right, having always sold and bought, laded and unladed all their goods and merchandise free from all tolls and customs, not only at Yarmouth Parva but anywhere on the arm of the sea which they now call Yarmouth Port, and all over England ; and all foreign merchants paid all their customs at Norwich, which was the then port, and in the King's hand, namely 4d. for every ship of bulk, and 2d. every boat, and all other customs for their merchandise ; all of which were due to the kings of England in right of that their city and port, till king Henry II, granted the city, and all the tolls, rights and customs belonging to it, to the citizens and their heirs for ever, paying to the exchequer a fee farm-rent of £108 a year ; all of which have been confirmed by divers kings and enjoyed by the city to this day, till the men of Yarmouth now began to hinder them in so doing, to their great damage and to the hindrance of their paying to the king his fee-farm ; for which reason they petitioned the king to recall Edward I's charter made to Yarmouth, or not to suffer it to be prejudicial to the city."

"Upon which," writes Blomefield, "the King directed his writ by advice of his privy council, commanding the bailiffs of Yarmouth to make proclamation in their town, that if any hindered or in any way molested the merchants' vessels, of what kind soever, from passing and repassing through the port of Yarmouth to and from the city of Norwich, that they should forfeit all their goods and chattels forfeitable for so doing."

The most determined and persevering opponents of Yarmouth were the men of Lowestoft. Their contests extended over 300 years, and the rivalry engendered between the two towns has hardly ceased to exist. The haven of Yarmouth having filled up in the fourteenth century, the burgesses petitioned Edward III to incorporate Kirkly Road, lying south of the town—and where ship cargoes were now compelled to be transferred to boats for landing—to Yarmouth. This

was granted to the dissatisfaction of Lowestoft, a Royal Burgh with many privileges similar to those bestowed on Yarmouth, whose inhabitants had largely profited by the discharging of vessels and buying herrings near their town without paying the Yarmouth dues.*

The contest which ensued fills many weary pages in *Swinden's Yarmouth* and *Gillingwater's Lowestoft*, and was carried on down to the reign of Charles II, when measurement of the locality was made and a limit assigned to the jurisdiction of Yarmouth, which however continued to enforce the payment of anchorage in Kirkly Road, or as it is called Corton Bay, down to the abolition of this admiralty jurisdiction in 1835.†

At a very early period Yarmouth was summoned to provide ships and men by our Plantagenet sovereigns,

* By virtue of this charter Yarmouth obtained the privilege of having Kirkly Road united to its town and haven, the right to receive the same customs there as had been before collected in the port of Yarmouth, and was further empowered to seize the ship's goods, &c., of such as bought or sold within seven leukes (miles) of it, under certain restrictions. As an instance of the determination with which the men of Yarmouth enforced their rights we read that in 1368 one John Lawes, was hanged for exporting seven sacks of wool out of Kirkly Road without paying the custom to Yarmouth. In the 50th year, Edward III, the Commons of the Eastern and Midland Counties petitioned Parliament, complaining "of the great scarcity of herrings throughout the realm since the granting of the new charter to Yarmouth, and because no herrings might be made or sold elsewhere but at the said town, to which neither cart nor horse can approach without passage twice by water; and the greatest part of herrings has been taken by strange fishers in the time of the fishery, who would not come to the said town because they could not sell their merchandises but at the will of the said burgesses, and that, at a certain price and quantity; praying for a repeal of the said charter." It was repealed in consequence of this remonstrance, but on representation in the following reign of the importance of Yarmouth as a naval port, it was reconfirmed by Richard II, after a visit paid by that sovereign to Yarmouth in 1382. This led to rioting and further petitions, it was again repealed, re-granted, repealed afresh, and 10 Richard II finally reconfirmed, and continued down to 1835.

† The controversy underwent many fluctuations, the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk taking part in the strife. Various awards given in favour of Lowestoft by the judges and privy council were evaded and resisted by Yarmouth. The measurement of the disputed boundaries was a continued bone of contention; Yarmouth in course of time aggravating the dispute by claiming 14 miles south of its haven's mouth as its limits, an area which embraced the roads of Lowestoft, the inhabitants of which place refused to concede more than seven miles measured from the Crane Key in the Yarmouth Haven, and this point was finally awarded by the House of Lords, 1661-2. Yarmouth was compelled with a very ill grace to accept this decision. The under-sheriff of Norfolk after disobeying the orders of the house to attend the measurement was incarcerated, and compelled to sue on his knees for pardon before the House. The Yarmouth jurisdiction extended northward to Scratby and southward to Corton, in Suffolk.

and acquired a high reputation for shipbuilding. In 1295 the Yarmouth Fleet numbered fifty-three vessels. In that year the French made an attempt to invade England. The project failed, and the Yarmouth fleet in requital sailed to Cherbourg, which they captured and burnt. It was about this time that the feuds between Yarmouth and the Cinque Ports broke out with the greatest violence, "making" as Manship deplores "many wives widows, children fatherless, and rich poor."

Among the MSS. in the Chapter House, Westminster, is a return shewing that during four years reign of Edward I, 236 Yarmouth men were killed by the Cinque Ports men in the Swinney, and 144 out of it. besides 280 Suffolk men and 387 Norfolk men ; whilst during the same period the Cinque Ports had lost 306 on their side. Holingshead relates in his Chronicle that on the occasion of Edward I passing into Flanders to assist the Earl thereof against the French King, he was no sooner landed than the men of Yarmouth and those of the Ports fell together upon the sea, and fought in such earnest-wise that notwithstanding the King's commands to the contrary, 25 ships of Yarmouth and their partakers were burned.*

John de Perebrowne, a remarkable man, who served the office of bailiff of Yarmouth no less than fifteen times, was Lord Admiral of the Northern Fleet. In 1340 he held a chief command in the naval engagement at Sluys, where the French were defeated by the use of "Greek fire," with a loss of 230 ships and 30,000

* A strong dash of piracy accompanied the rise of our naval greatness. The plunder of Spanish galleons and the sack of towns on the French coast had irresistible attractions for the English seamen, the descendants of the Norsemen. The merchants and guilds of London, nay Queen Elizabeth herself, had their ventures in the buccaneering expeditions of Drake and Raleigh. At an earlier period, their own countrymen were not safe from their onslaughts, and the men of Yarmouth contrived to gratify their ancient grudges and thirst for booty at the same time. In Edward I's reign, regular safe conducts were issued to the Cinque Ports vessels on the occasion of their annual visits, as if to an enemy's port. Camden relates that the men of Yarmouth "often engaged their neighbours, the Lestoffenses, or men of Lowestoff, in sea fights, with great slaughter on both sides." In 1342 Yarmouth and Hull fitted out a piratical fleet against London and Bristol.

men. The Yarmouth men had the commendation of the King himself, above all his other subjects which served him there. This was the period of Yarmouth's highest naval importance. At the siege of Calais in 1346, the North Fleet "consisted of 217 ships, 4,521 men, and of these Yarmouth furnished 43 ships and 1,083 men, being a larger number than any other port: London provided 25 ships with 662 men; Bristol 23 ships and 608 men; Newcastle 17 ships with 314 men; Hull 16 ships with 466 men; Lynn 19 ships with 382 men; Harwich 14 ships with 283 men; and Ipswich, 12 ships with 239 men. Dunwich, now utterly swallowed by the sea, sent 6 ships and 102 men. The King's ships numbered only 25, with 419 men."

The situation of Yarmouth, lying at the mouth of three great rivers, which formed the easiest mode of internal communication down to our own time, tended to its prosperity. It was also the chief port of the sea coast lying opposite the continent, and the key of the defences of the eastern counties. It became a place of importance during the wars of our early Kings with their disaffected Barons. In 1260 a charter was granted to it by Henry III, giving the burgesses liberty to enclose the town with a wall and moat, so that the same might remain enclosed "so long as they behaved themselves." The work however was not commenced until 1284, when it was carried on from year to year until completed in 1396, the townsmen building, according to Manship, "a fair high wall, embattled and most magnificently towered and turreted,—extremely comely." Many bequests were willed during the period "for making the walls" and "to finish the walls." In 1386, in a charter granted by Richard II, it is set forth that the town of Great Yarmouth levied and supported greater charges "in the fortifications and support of the same town against enemies, than any other city or burgh within six counties in circuit next adjoining." Queen Elizabeth, in granting to the town a charter of great

importance "for the better security, protection and defence of the town against insults, treachery, and dangers of the enemy, for provisions and instruments of war, and in the maintenance and support of the stone walls, and bulwarks, and haven and bridge," exempted it from all admiralty jurisdiction, conferring upon it a weekly court of admiralty with jurisdiction over all causes and offences whatsoever upon the high seas (piracy excepted); together with the goods and chattels of felons, outlaws, murderers, and all waifs and strays, fletsam, jetsam, lagan,* goods of enemies and derelicts, all fishes royal—sturgeon, whales, porpoises, dolphins, grampuses, &c.—from ancient time by right of custom belonging to the crown.

The course of these fortifications will be found traced on our map. The walls were probably commenced on the sea face at the north east tower, called King Henry's,† in St. Nicholas' churchyard, proceeding along the eastern edge of the town‡ south to the Blackfriars' Tower, now standing and known as the Friars' Tower,§ and continuing from this point west to within a short distance of the river. Here one of the principal entrances, the South Gate or the "Great Gate" was erected. Between this gate and the haven a mount called the "South Mount" was raised in 1590,

* Walls (Saxon, Waficen) stolen goods waved or left by the felon, for fear of being apprehended. Fletsam, goods floating, concerning which it is said, that when "a man, a dog, or a cat," shall escape "quick" out of the ship, the same ship shall not be adjudged wreck. Jetsam (from jetter, to throw out), goods thrown overboard a ship in danger of wreck. Lagan (Saxon, liggan, to lie down), goods sunk in the sea.

† Now used as a charnel-house. It was named after Henry III, who first granted a charter to enclose the town with a wall and ditch.

‡ Along this eastern wall were eight of the town gates opening on to the Denes.

§ This "Friars' Tower," through which a public road now runs, is well worth a visit. At this point, in St. Nicholas' churchyard, and at the north-west tower on the Bure, the old walls may be most easily examined. "Their interior construction," writes Mr. Harrod, in the *Norfolk Archæology*, "completely resembles that of those of Rome, as seen from the Monte Testaceo, in the vicinity of the pyramid of Caius Cestius." They were constructed of rubble, chiefly flints interspersed with hard flat bricks somewhat thicker than the Roman tiles, firmly united by concrete, and faced with cut flints; Caen stone and brickwork was employed in the loopholes. The outer sides of most of the towers are circular with a flat edge inwards. An interesting paper on the past history and present condition of the Town Walls of Yarmouth has been recently contributed to the *Norfolk Archæology*, vol. 6, by Mr. C. J. Palmer, with illustrations by Mr. Morant.

higher than the town wall, and commanding the course of the river. Below the mount a jetty on each side of the river with a boom between, kept close during the night and strictly watched, completed the defences at the south end of the town. In 1349 the works were suspended by a visitation of the plague, which is said to have carried off above 7000 out of a population of 10,000. The works were recommenced at King Henry's Tower, carried across the northern boundaries of St. Nicholas churchyard, and across the high road leading to Caister. Here was erected the most imposing of the town gates—the Northern—with two lofty square towers and massive central portal.* The walls were continued down to the Bure, terminating with the north-western tower completed in 1396, 136 years from the date of King Henry's charter. The line of wall was in length about 2200 yards, and had ten gates and sixteen towers, enclosing an area of 133 acres, with a circumference, including the river frontage of 1750 yards, of about two and a quarter miles, which may be assumed to have been the extent of Yarmouth in the fourteenth and several centuries later. The materials employed were cut flints and brickwork, built up, according to Manship, to a height of twenty-three feet. A moat or ditch passable with boats or keels was added, completing a fortress of great strength for the period. The progress of military science necessitated additional defences from time to time, and mounts, ravelins and fortifications of earth planted with cannon, were added.† A castle with four turrets and fire beacons had been erected in 1330 in the heart of the town, near the site of St. George's chapel. This was repaired from time to time. In

* Erected, tradition says, at the expense of persons employed in the revolting but lucrative task of interring the dead during the plague.

† The fortifications of Yarmouth did the town good service on the occasion of Kett's insurrection in 1549, when the rebels planted ordnance brought from Lowestoft at Gorleston and cannonaded the town without success. The inhabitants sallied out "agenste the said rebbelles, and there hurte manye, and killed manye, and put the reste to flighte." See notice of the Lister and Kett insurrections in Appendix.

1588, during the Spanish Armada panic, the walls were further strengthened and rampired. The gateways were arched over in the inside, whereby a pleasant walk was formed from one end of the town to the other, commanding from its elevation an extensive prospect, and affording, says Swinden, "great pleasure to all strangers that came to the town." In 1625 a general survey was made, and the various towers and gates supplied with thirty pieces of ordnance. The year before, an artillery ground had been provided, and a Mr. Dungaue engaged "to teach the inhabitants feats of arms." All the inhabitants were required to appear armed every Tuesday afternoon, to be viewed and disciplined and enrolled in the town bands. During the civil wars the town declared for the parliament, the gates were kept locked, the bridges drawn up every night, moats were deepened, and the sea side lined with ordnance. The royalists made prisoners were confined in the towers. After the downfall of the Stuarts the fortifications were suffered to go to decay. The towers passed into private hands, a few are still standing, but the gates have all perished, thanks to the utilitarian vandalism of modern times.

The shipping of Yarmouth was largely employed in the transport of coal, wool—of which Yarmouth was one of the staple towns*—the produce of its

* Mr. Smiles, in his preface to the "Lives of the Engineers," has adduced a number of brief but forcible illustrations to exhibit what he justly concludes will excite the surprise of his readers—how modern England is in all that relates to skilled industry, enterprise, and ingenuity, which appear among the very youngest outgrowths of our national life. "Most of the continental nations had a long start of us in art, in science, in mechanics, in navigation, and in engineering. Not many centuries since Italy, Spain, France, and Holland, looked down contemptuously on the poor but proud islanders, contending with nature for a subsistence amidst their fogs and their mists. Though surrounded by the sea, we had scarcely any navy until within the last three hundred years. Even our fisheries were so unproductive that our markets were supplied by the Dutch, who sold us the herrings caught upon our own coasts. England was then regarded principally as a magazine for the supply of raw materials, which were carried away in foreign ships, and partly returned to us in manufactures worked up by foreign artisans. We grew wool for Flanders as America grows cotton for England now. Even the little manufactured at home was sent to the Low Countries to be dyed." Our main object in citing this extract is its bearing upon the commerce of Yarmouth as the chief seaport of the east coast; a large portion of the

fisheries to the Roman Catholic countries of Europe, the import of wines from France, and the export of corn and grain.* This last branch of trade was always and is still considerable in Yarmouth; a matter of no surprise when it is considered that Norfolk long exported as much corn as all the other counties of England together. In 1845, 327,000 qrs. of corn were exported from Yarmouth; in 1855, 258,000. The coal trade is also an important one, a large fleet of wherries being engaged in its re-shipment, and transport throughout the wide district traversed by the inland navigation. The foreign trade is chiefly with the Baltic and Mediterranean. On the 31st December, 1858, 631 sailing vessels, of 38,425 tons, and 10 steamers, were registered as belonging to the port. The dues received at the port for the year ending Michaelmas,

carrying trade across the channel to the continent and back was naturally conducted at Yarmouth, subject however to continual fluctuations arising from the repeated choking up of the navigation of its haven.

* There is a description of this commerce in the "Tour thro' Great Britain," 1742. After dwelling on the Herring Fair, and the great home trade done in fish, the writer adds:—"But this is only one branch of the great trade done in this town; another part of its commerce is the exporting of these herrings after they are cured; and for this its merchants have a great trade to Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, Messina, and Venice, as also to Spain and Portugal; exporting likewise with their herrings great quantities of worsted stuffs, and stuffs made of silk and worsted, camlets, &c., the manufactures of the neighbouring city of Norwich and the places adjacent. Besides this, they carry on a considerable trade with Holland, exporting a vast quantity of woollen manufactures every year. Also they have a fishing trade to the North Seas for white fish, which from the place are called the North Sea cod. They have likewise a considerable trade to Norway and the Baltick, from whence they bring back deals, and fir timber, oaken planks, baulks, spars, oars, pitch, tar, hemp, flax, canvas, and sail cloth; with all manner of naval stores, for which they generally have a consumption in their own port, where they build a very great number of ships every year, besides refitting and repairing the old. Add to this the Coal Trade between Newcastle and the river Thames, of which they are so improved of late years, that they have now a greater share in it than any other town in England, and have quite worked the Ipswich men out of it, who had formerly the chief share of the colliery in their own hands. For the carrying on all these trades, they have a very great number of ships, either of their own or employed by them; and it may in some measure be judged by this, that in the year 1897 I had an account from the Town Register that there were then 1123 sail of ships using the sea, belonging to the town. Besides such ships as the merchants of Yarmouth might be concerned in, and be part-owners of, belonging to any other ports. To all this I must add, without compliment to the town, that the merchants, and even the generality of traders of Yarmouth, have a very good reputation in trade, as well abroad as at home, for fair and honourable dealing; and their seamen, as well masters as mariners, are justly esteemed among the ablest and most expert navigators in England.

1861, were £8475, as compared with £9006 for the corresponding twelve months 1859—60.

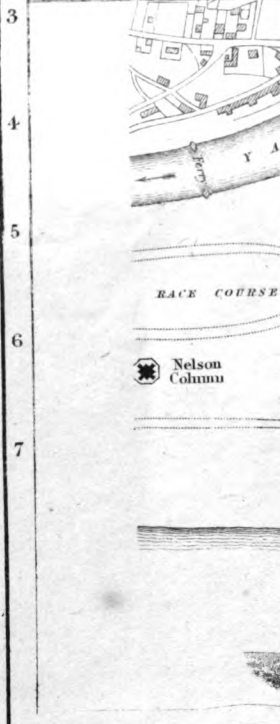
Although the ship building yards of Yarmouth have not kept pace with those of towns more advantageously situated, its builders of the present century have been celebrated for their models, and numerous vessels have been launched from their slips. The beauty and exceeding fineness of the lines of the numerous yawls and pleasure boats upon the beach justify the high local reputation of their designers and constructors. Messrs. Beeching and Son, the Yarmouth boat builders, obtained the Northumberland prize of 100 guineas, for their life-boat model, in 1851.

Undoubtedly the main and solid basis of the prosperity of Yarmouth, from its earliest date to the present time, has been the Herring Fishery, a branch of industry with which the name of Yarmouth is more identified than any other English town. A herring is proverbially known as a Yarmouth capon. It is a common saying that Amsterdam is built on a foundation of herring bones, and the same may be said with far greater truth of Yarmouth. From the earliest period on record the Norfolk coast has been the favourite haunt of this delicious fish, and the capital embarked and the numerous populations, English, French, and Dutch, engaged for many centuries past in the prosecution of the herring fishery in these seas, have rendered it an enterprise of world wide interest. In nature, the importance of the rôle is almost always in inverse ratio to the greatness of the beings which fill it: so with the herring. It has been the subject of European treaties and the occasion of national wars. Whilst Philip II, of Spain, lavished the wealth of the Indies in his efforts to crush the infancy of freedom and religious liberty, the Dutch found in the herring fishery a gold mine, whose treasures outlasting and exhausting those of Mexico and Peru, helped to gain for Europe those precious rights she enjoys at this day. For several centuries the Dutch, by dint of superior

GREAT Y

REFERENCES.

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|----|--------------------------|----|------------|
| 1 | Wherryman's Church | 14 | Gaul |
| 2 | Priory Schools | 15 | Custom |
| 3 | Primitive Methodist | 16 | Port Due |
| | Chapel & Schools | 17 | Methodist |
| 4 | Fishermen's Hospital | | Connect |
| 5 | Children's Hospital | 18 | St Peter's |
| 6 | Charity Schools | 19 | St John's |
| 7 | Lady Huntingdon's Chapel | 20 | Coast Gu |
| 2 | Jews' Synagogue | 21 | Life Boat |
| 9 | Theatre | 22 | Sailors |
| 10 | Westlevan Chapel | 23 | Norfolk |
| 11 | Independent Chapel | 24 | Bath Ho |
| 12 | St George's Chapel | 25 | Royal Ho |
| 13 | Hospital | 26 | Victoria |



energy and appliances, reaped the larger portion of this prolific harvest, but of late years their fisheries have shared in the gradual decay of their national greatness, and are now quite overshadowed by the rapid growth of those of Great Britain. The history and processes of the herring fishery would require and repay a volume exclusively devoted to their description. We have sought to do justice to the subject in a chapter larger than our narrow limits would fairly warrant, later on in the body of the Guide.

I.

THE QUAY SIDE AND HAVEN.

"Yon is our quay! • • • • •
 Hark to the clamour in that miry road,
 Bounded and narrowed by yon vessel's load!
 The lumbering wealth she empties round the place,
 Package, and parcel, hogshead, chest and case:
 While the loud seaman and the angry hind,
 Mingling in business, bellow to the wind."—CRABBE.

The especial pride of Yarmouth is its Quay, which forms the most characteristic feature of its port, and one of the chief ornaments of the town. Its superiority is asserted over every other quay in Europe, excepting that of Seville. Extending nearly a mile and a quarter in length, its effect is greatly lessened by the yards and buildings which encumber its extremities, and those who have traversed the Boompjies of Rotterdam, with its stately avenue of trees, will draw unfavourable comparisons from the forlorn and neglected condition of the lime trees, which otherwise give so picturesque an appearance to the Yarmouth South Quay. The centre of the Quay, facing the new bridge, with its receding frontage of lofty buildings, forms a wide and handsome Place of which any city might feel proud. Running

southward along the Quay, lie many of the chief public and private buildings of the town,—its Post Office and Banks, its Town Hall—a large and somewhat imposing building, effective from its detached site, which however is an encroachment on the Quay at its greatest width—its Custom House, Public Library, School of Design and others. Intermixed with these are many of the best private residences of its merchants and professional men. Here the visitor may without difficulty fancy himself transported to one of the old *Grachts* of Amsterdam. Large, roomy, old-fashioned, and quaint, these edifices betoken the antiquity and commercial prosperity of Yarmouth.* The houses wear a look of quiet comfort and homeliness. They were built and inhabited by an active industrious race, steadily building up the prosperity of their families, indulging in none of the ostentatious expenditure of the present day, with no visions of country houses, and no display of equipages. In doors, their apartments were pervaded by the tastes of their Dutch neighbours—cabinets filled with china, choice pictures by Rembrandt, De Koninck, Teniers, Ostade, Berghem, and other rare masters of Holland. Here were to be found admirers and purchasers of the works of Gainsborough, old Crome, and the school of native artists, who drew their inspiration from the flat but beautiful landscapes of Norfolk and Suffolk. Fine portfolios of rare prints and etchings were also accumulated here.

* "In this pleasant and agreeable range of houses are some magnificent buildings, and, among the rest, the Custom House, and Town Hall, and some merchants' houses, which look like little palaces rather than the dwelling houses of private men."—TOUR THROUGH GREAT BRITAIN, 1742. Those who may have read the numerous eulogies of the public buildings and private dwellings of Yarmouth, written in the 16th 17th and 18th centuries, may think them unwarranted, judging from the town's appearance at the present day. They were however quite true at the periods in which they were written. The Yarmouth buildings were far in advance of many other English towns, and we must remember that down to a comparatively recent period, Glasgow, Manchester, Liverpool, Southampton, and many other great and flourishing cities of our day were far below it in trade and population. It was unquestionably the finest town on the Eastern coast for several centuries. The last generation never dreamed of such palatial buildings as those rising in our streets on every side. Even now the public buildings of Yarmouth are unusually creditable and effective, for a town of its dimensions.

Lists of many of these modest galleries and collections are given in the pages of *Druery*, and they bespeak the prevalence of a refined and cultivated taste among the wealthy inhabitants of Great Yarmouth; whose old families living in a remote nook of East Anglia appear to have dwelt in a state of comparative seclusion from the surrounding world, and to have married and intermarried from age to age, until the ancient local names swell into little clans bound together by the links of blood relationship, and mutual interest; and the history of its municipality becomes well nigh the story of the struggles, the rise and fall of its rival houses, its "Montagues and Capulets." Many of these art treasures have been dispersed, but more remain than might be surmised from the unpretending exteriors of the mansions which enshrine them.

We will commence our survey of the Quay from the new bridge re-placing the curious draw-bridge which figures in the old engravings of the town. This bridge is a connecting link between the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk, between Southtown and Yarmouth, and forms the principal entrance to the town. Up to 1417 the only means of communication from the opposite side of the river was a foot ferry, but subsequently a wooden bridge was thrown across, and in 1553 a drawbridge was erected.* This was carried away by a high tide in 1570, and another was constructed. In 1785 a new drawbridge was put up, which, with certain modifications, existed until 1836, when being considered unsafe, a temporary one was erected to the north of it. In 1843, the commissioners entered into a contract for the erection of an iron bridge, for £9,950 (the next lowest tender being £17,250), but the contractors very naturally soon became bankrupts. Some fresh tenders having been

* This bridge was not originally a drawbridge, but was made so in 1553, for the better defence of the town, on behalf of Queen Mary; and it was so narrow, that a carriage passing over it required the whole space; and therefore, recesses (as may yet be seen in many old bridges,) were made on each side as places of refuge for foot passengers.

received, it was found that the new bridge could not be built at a less sum than £19,070, and further delay took place. In 1849 an Act of Parliament was obtained for the construction of the present bridge; the total cost, including the purchase of the site, was £50,000, the bridge itself costing £24,000: it is built of iron, on the tubular principle, upon two massive stone piers, each twelve feet across. The entire bridge, including the approaches, comprises upwards of 2600 tons weight of granite and stone, and above 300 tons of iron.

Facing the bridge is the house occupied by Messrs. Gurney's bank, which has been recently re-built. Here long resided one of its partners, the late Mr. Dawson Turner. To this accomplished scholar the county of Norfolk is largely indebted. Born at Yarmouth in 1775, and dying in 1857: although distinguished as one of the ablest botanical writers of his day, and a member and fellow of wellnigh every literary and scientific society of repute, English and continental,—it was to the elucidation and illustration of the antiquities of his native county that his long life was mainly devoted. His collections for the illustration of Blomefield's Norfolk formed at his death seventy volumes and cases, including several hundreds of rolls, MSS. original deeds and charters.* It would be but an inadequate estimate of it to describe it as the finest illustrated county history which exists. Of the 7000 illustrations, 4000 were beautiful original drawings, and a list of a portion only occupies 200 pages of the Norfolk Topographer's Manual. Each succeeding year witnesses the decay and disappearance of those monuments of the past, which Mr. Turner sought to preserve from oblivion; and time, as it lapses, will largely enhance the value of his labours to the historian and antiquary. In the production of this vast mass of drawings Mr. Turner was aided by a band of

* On the dispersal of Mr. Turner's collections at his death, this unique topography was secured for the British Museum.

auxiliaries, who caught the contagion of his enthusiasm, and whose talents he quickened into activity and trained especially for the task. His most valuable assistant was Mr. J. S. Cotman, the artist and antiquary, who contributed many of the finest illustrations. Mr. Turner's family became this gentleman's pupils, and the beautiful drawings and private etchings of these accomplished ladies form a large and attractive portion of the work. The ardour with which Mr. Turner rode his hobby raised up a number of local amateur artists, self-taught, but of considerable merit, painters, etchers, and engravers.* Among them may be instanced the two brothers Girling. The etchings of Richard Girling, of the scenery of the Caister marshes, are imbued with the poetic feeling and treatment of Waterloo; and the spirited copies by Edmund Girling (who was a clerk in Mr. Turner's bank) of some of Rembrandt's finest etchings, such as the *Gold Weigher*, the *Three Trees*, and the *Descent from the Cross*, deserve to be known and appreciated beyond the locality where they were produced. The particular impulse and direction given by Mr. Turner to art in Yarmouth appear to be dying out, nevertheless it has still living artists of no mean skill, observant and loving

* The history of art in this corner of England has yet to be fully written, and will form an interesting chapter. It may be mentioned here that an annual exhibition of pictures, composed chiefly of works of painters resident in the district, has been held for many years past at Norwich. Among the artistic notabilities of Yarmouth during the last century may be instanced James Sayers, one of the most powerful satirists of his day, and equally skilful with pen and pencil. Brought up to the law, a love disappointment drove him from Yarmouth to London. There his spirited caricatures attracted the notice of Pitt, who bestowed on him a sinecure appointment, to which Lord Eldon subsequently added a second. His caricatures on the leading events of the times, Fox's India Bill, Hastings' Trial, the Regency Bill, &c., were very successful although inferior to those of Gillray. Of his satires—the most important, *Elijah's Mantle*—has frequently been attributed to Canning. He died in Curzon Street, 1823, and is buried in the vaults of St. Andrew's, Holborn. Among the best miniature painters of the last century was Edward Miles, a native of Yarmouth. He was greatly noticed by Sir Joshua Reynolds, and executed small copies of his pictures. His works appear in the catalogues of the Royal Academy from 1786 to 1797. He held the honourable appointment of miniature painter to the Queen, and also to the Duchess of York. We may mention also the two Joys, sons of the guard of the Yarmouth mail coach, whose talents attracting Captain Manby, were brought forward into public notice by his assistance. The vigorous sea pictures of the elder, and the powerful drawings of the younger, are to be found in many of the best local collections.

students of nature.* Among the benefits incidentally resulting from Mr. Turner's literary and artistic pursuits, the stimulus imparted to the study of the archæology of the district may be cited; whilst his gallery of pictures, his valuable library, and remarkable collection of MSS., exercised a refining influence on those admitted to enjoy them.†

Further south is the Star Inn, an old Elizabethan house, once the property of the Bradshaw family. Externally constructed of squared flints, its banquetting room, converted into a kitchen and bar, has the remains of a richly ornamented pendant ceiling. The original staircase exists and leads to a room on the first floor, called the Nelson room, the wainscot pannelling of which is richly carved, and blackened by age. The ceiling is also richly ornamented.

We pass now the end of Regent street. Until 1813 there was no cross street in Yarmouth, all running north and south; and the only outlets for

* Amateur etching has been extensively practised during the present century in Yarmouth. We have had the pleasure of turning over the collection of local etchings in the possession of Mr. W. H. Hunt, which, in trial proofs and unpublished plates, is probably unique. It is nearly forty years, since Rembrandt's etchings first inspired a little band of young and self-taught artists, in Yarmouth, with a mutual rivalry of effort to reproduce the daring effects of the great master. (Chambers, in his *General History of Norfolk*, dates its impulse to the circumstance of a son of Crome beguiling his leisure at the Yarmouth Bank, in forwarding the successive stages of an etched plate. This attracted the attention of his fellow clerks, one of whom, Girling, proceeded to prosecute the art.) From copies of Rembrandt's works, executed with more or less of merit, they proceeded to etching bits of scenery, local antiquities, the pictures of Gainsborough, Crome, Joy, and other painters of the district. A few impressions got into circulation, many were suppressed, the coppers of most were later sold in London for old metal. Their production had been the work of scanty leisure; and failing to reach the high standard of excellence they had set before them, the artists, with a commendable self-respect, consigned their labours to oblivion. A number of these etchings were of sufficient excellence to make us greatly regret their destruction. Time has thinned and dispersed the engravers, and with the gentleman we have named above, who is one of the last survivors, the traditions of a little school of art, whose existence was probably unknown at the time to the great majority of the inhabitants of Yarmouth, will altogether die out. The *Norfolk Archæologia*, the *History of Caister Castle*, and other local publications, are indebted for their etched illustrations to the artistic skill of several of the ladies of Yarmouth, amongst whom the art appears to have become a favourite accomplishment.

† A notice of some of the chief art treasures of Yarmouth, dispersed during this century, will be found in our Appendix.

conveyances were at the extremities of the Quay. To remedy this inconvenience this new street was formed.

The most singular and curious feature of Yarmouth,—that in which it resembles no other English town, is its Row or lane. The term is probably a corruption of the French *rue*, a street. The construction of the Yarmouth rows doubtless originated in the cramped situation of the town, extending along a peninsula of very limited area and surrounded for several centuries with fortifications.* Thickly as the old portion of the town is peopled, and closely contiguous as most of the buildings are, the founders of it manifested great skill in making the most of a limited space, with a due regard to the health of its inhabitants: the “Rows” running east and west, a current of sea breeze is continually passing through them, preventing residents therein ever lacking a supply of fresh air. These rows, 145 in number, being too narrow to admit the passing through them of such vehicles as are used in other places, Yarmouth possesses a peculiar description of cart, called “trolls,”

* “A row is a long narrow lane, or alley, quite straight, or as nearly so as may be, with houses on each side, both of which you can sometimes touch at once with the finger-tips of each hand, by stretching out your arms to their full extent. Now and then the houses overhang, and even join above your head, converting the row, so far, into a sort of tunnel, or tubular passage. Many and many a picturesque old bit of domestic architecture is to be hunted up amongst the rows. In some rows there is little more than a blank wall for the double boundary. In others, the houses retreat into tiny square courts, where washing and clear-starching are done, and wonderful nasturtiums and scarlet runners are reared from green boxes, filled with that scarce commodity, vegetable mould. Most of the rows are paved with pebbles from the beach; and, strange to say, these narrow gangways are traversed by horses, and carts which are built for this special service, and which have been the cause of serious misunderstanding among antiquaries, as to whether they were, or were not, modelled after the chariots of Roman invaders. Of course, if two carts were to meet in the middle of a row, one of the two must either go back to the end again, or pass over the other one, like goats upon a single-file ledge of precipice. The straightness of the passage usually obviates this alternative. A few rows are well paved throughout with flag-stone; carts are not allowed to enter them, and foot passengers prefer them to the pebbly pathways. Hence they are the chosen locality of numerous little shop-keepers. If you want a stout pair of hob-nailed shoes, or a scientifically-oiled dreadnought, or a dozen of bloaters, or a quadrant or compass, or a bunch of turnips the best in the world, or a woollen comforter and nightcap for one end of your person, and worsted overall stockings for the other, or a plate of cold boiled leg of pork stuffed with parsley, or a ready made waistcoat, with blazing pattern and bright glass buttons—with any of these you can soon be accommodated in one or other of the paved rows.”—HOUSEHOLD WORDS.

or Yarmouth carts,* long, narrow, and low, somewhat of a sledge character, having a very short thick axle with wheels running under the body of the carriage, of easy draught, and exceedingly convenient for loading and unloading. The rows, in compliance with the paving and lighting Act, are numbered from north to south.† They are chiefly inhabited by persons in the humbler walks of life, or occupied as fish offices, store rooms, and malt houses. In a few of them, especially such as are flag-paved, may still be found some large and respectable residences, with airy yards attached to them; some with spacious chambers, whose antique carvings decayed and worm-eaten, mutely evidence the wealth and importance of their ancient possessors, and through whose darkened casements oft-times stream peculiar and picturesque effects of light and shadow. To

* The Yarmouth Trolly Carts first appear in an ordinance of the 8th Henry VIII., where they are described as those lately devised carts called Harry Carriers. Numerous ordinances followed for their regulation; and many complaints against the drivers for damaging the streets, houses, rows, and trees. Last century they were largely used as pleasure conveyances. "in summer, and particularly during the bathing season, a number of these vehicles, which the people of Yarmouth dignify by the name of coaches, are let out to company who visit the town, and choose an excursion to the fort, an airing upon the denes, or a jaunt into the country. The carriages for these purposes are generally painted red, green, or blue, and may be had for a few hours for two shillings, horse and driver included. The horses used here are remarkably good trotters; but from the uncouth construction of the carriage, they seem to go thundering and blundering down the narrow rows, which the carts so exactly fit as not to be overturned, and along the streets, in a very disagreeable manner. Upon the whole, the Yarmouth cart-coach is the most convenient, useful, and whimsical carriage used in the kingdom."—NORFOLK TOUR, 1795. These cart-coaches were subsequently annihilated by the duty imposed on pleasure carts.

† "They were not numbered until 1804: prior to which period, each could only be distinguished by the name of some person living in or adjoining it, as "Dame Aveline's Rowe:" unless a peculiar name had been acquired, such as "a certain lane called le Castel Rowe," (now No. 99,) by which it is still known; and in the time of King Edward III., we read of a row which had acquired the doubtful designation of "Helle Rowe." A row (No. 95) leading from the Dene side to Middlegate street, was called "Kitty Witches' Row." It is remarkable for its singularly irregular construction; and whilst it measures at the entrance from King street, four feet and a half in breadth, the buildings on either side are gradually contracted together, until at the outlet only a narrow passage of barely thirty inches is left for foot passengers. Some derive its name from one Christopher Wyche, who is said to have had a house here; whilst others believe that it was once inhabited by "Kitty Witches," who, according to Formby, (Vocabulary of East Anglia) were women of the lowest order, who dressed themselves in a grotesque manner, and went from house to house, at some particular period of the year, levying contributions."—PALMER.

re-people these quaint abodes the mind reverts to the Dutch interiors of Metzu, Mieris, or Gerard Dow. Many of the dwellers in the rows are now deserting them for the houses springing up in the outskirts, leaving their former homes to be used as warehouses.

The Town Hall, a palladian edifice, fronts the west, and, despite the incongruity of its architecture, presents a somewhat imposing appearance. It was commenced in 1715, the front basement and the Assembly Rooms over it being then constructed. This room which is 61 feet in length, is a very elegant and well proportioned apartment. Over the chimney piece hangs a full length portrait of George I. in his Garter Robes, painted and presented to the Corporation by *Worsdale*, master painter to the Board of Ordnance. The Card Room, which adjoins the Assembly Room, the kitchen, and other offices were added in 1782. In the Card Room, there is a portrait of Sir Robert Walpole, K.G., who was High Steward of Yarmouth, and three views of Yarmouth painted by *Butcher* towards the close of the last century; which are curious as faithfully depicting the then appearance of the town and the costumes of the inhabitants. The North front of the Town Hall was continued eastward in 1842, when a police court, station house, and detention cells were erected; with apartments for the superintendent of police. In the Court room, the Borough magistrates sit daily in Petty Sessions, at Ten o'clock; and the County magistrates, every alternate Wednesday, at One o'clock. The Town Council have recently annexed to the Town Hall, a handsome building of white brick, fronting the south and east. The ground floor is used as a store for the town fire engines; above which there is a spacious apartment communicating with the card room, fitted up as a Record Room, (and to be used for committee meetings,) with a smaller apartment which is fire proof, in which the most valuable muniments are preserved. These consist principally of a series of charters, commencing with the one of King John,

constituting Yarmouth a free Burgh, and ending with one granted by Queen Anne; and also a very perfect series of Municipal Rolls, commencing at a very early period, and containing much matter of great interest. In the Record Room is placed a very curious iron chest, called "the Hutch," in which, in former times, the Corporation kept their charters, money, and most valuable effects.

Many of the houses on the Quay possess decorated ceilings, carved chimney pieces, and rooms enriched with ornament of more or less elaboration.* The most remarkable private house is No. 4, South Quay, belonging to C. J. Palmer, Esq. Its modern exterior is plain and of yellow brick; within, the rooms are decorated with pannelled wainscottings, chimney pieces, friezes, ceilings, fluted pilasters, masks and terminal figures of surprising variety of ornamentation; the rich and lavish carving of the finest design and execution of the Elizabethan period.† It was built in 1596, by Benjamin Cooper, a merchant of Yarmouth, and its representative in Parliament. It is said to have been the scene of one of the meetings of the Republican Leaders, at which the death of Charles was discussed and resolved on. Its owner, Mr. John Carter, was a leader of the Presbyterian party in

* "Carved chimney pieces of the 16th century may be seen at the Duke's Head Inn, and at the Banking house of Sir E. K. Lacon, Bart., Lacons, Youell, and Co., on the Hall Plain, and at Mr. Breeze's house in the market place. A fine old Elizabethan house, (with a modern front) belonging to the Worship family, No. 167, King Street, contains a good specimen of a staircase of that period. On the south quay, specimens of pendant ceilings will be found at No. 2, (occupied by the National Provincial Bank,) in No. 47, (occupied by Mr Betts,) and in the house No. 54, (now occupied by Mr. Shelly;) there is a room very richly adorned with carvings of the time of Queen Elizabeth, with an elegant pendant ceiling. In an old house called "The Cock," in Gaol street, there is a curious ceiling; in a house at the back of No. 31, south quay, there is part of a very elaborate ceiling of the time of James I. The houses No. 23, Hall Plain, (Benjamin Dowson, Esq.); No 27, south quay, (Lady Travers); No. 75, south quay, (late John Preston, Esq.); are fine examples of the old family mansion of the seventeenth century. There are some half-timbered houses, with the herring-bone pattern, in Row No. 12, church plain.

† A handsome folio volume descriptive of this house, with 48 plates, by H. Shaw, was issued for private circulation by Mr. Palmer, in 1838, entitled "Illustrations of Domestic Architecture in England, during the reign of Queen Elizabeth."

Yarmouth, and the friend of Cromwell. "I remember when I was a boy," wrote Mr. Hewling Luson, to Dr. Brooke, in 1773, "they used to show a large chamber in the house of Mr. Carter, which had also been the house of his father, in which, as the tradition went, the infamous murder of Charles I. on the scaffold was finally determined. A meeting of the principal officers in the army was held in this chamber. They chose to be above stairs, for the privacy of their conference, they strictly commanded no person should come near the room, except a man appointed to attend; their dinner, which was ordered at four o'clock, was put off from time to time till past eleven at night; they then came down, took a very short repast, and immediately all set off post, many for London, and some for the quarters of the army." A little further south is Queen street, leading from the quay to Goal street, formed through what was once the precincts of the Grey Friars' Monastery, and the site of the Conventual church, of which now no trace remains, except a part of the cloister at the back of one of the houses on the South Denes.

Continuing south we arrive at the Custom House, formerly the residence of Justice Martin,* possessing

* Prior to the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the customs throughout the country were farmed by private individuals; those at Yarmouth by two of the chief inhabitants. Great abuses resulted; the farmers were prohibited from having ships of their own, or meddling with the freights of other ships. In 1590, the Queen took the customs into the hands of the Crown, and erected the first Custom House in London. In 1812, after various migrations to private houses, the Yarmouth Custom House was fixed in its present abode, which belonged at the commencement of the last century to Mr. John Andrews, one of the aldermen; and who had the courage to resist and break down the illegal ordinances of the corporation, for fixing an arbitrary price on the sale of herrings, and reselling them themselves at a large profit. In the course of the lengthy dispute, he was disfranchised by the corporation, who also refused to grant him the liberty of making steps into his new house on the quay, 'till he refunded all the charges he had put the town to;' but the declaration adds, 'he goes into his house by a moveable ladder, as they do at a Quaker's meeting house.' Mr. Justice Martin was, it is said, a poor boy in the service of Mr. Andrews, afterwards his clerk. His master left him the bulk of his property, including his new residence. The relatives disputed the will, and Martin wrote to the Lord Chancellor, enclosing a £20 note. For this he was summoned to show cause why he should not be committed. On asking pardon, paying costs, and giving the £20 to the poor prisoners in the Fleet, and because his imprisonment might have prejudiced the town business (he being then mayor), the court did not commit him. He afterwards wasted his property, and became collector of customs, dying at a great age, in 1792.

no feature of architectural interest; it contains a spacious hall, offices, long room, &c. Owing to the customs of Lowestoft being no longer collected as formerly at Yarmouth, to the great lowering of duties, and the diversion of trade into other channels, the revenue received here, which twenty years ago amounted to £70,000, has gradually kept falling; in 1861, the customs were £23,000.

Two doors below the Custom House the eye is attracted by a front displaying the royal and town arms, and above is a clock long known as the "Dutch clock." This building, according to Manship, was the site of the staple or mart house of wool in the reign of Edward II. In 1600, it was granted as a house of morning prayer to the Dutch congregation, many of whom had fled from the persecutions of Alva, in the Netherlands, and settled in Norwich and Yarmouth. The Dutch Mariners who frequented the fisheries on the coast, resided in the town in considerable numbers. In 1593, "a fair turret leaded, also a dial or horologe of great beauty, were erected. Upon the leads every Sunday for the most part in the summer season, after evening prayer ended, the waits or musicians of Yarmouth do resound forth upon several consorts of musical instruments, most melodious and delightful harmony. Under which leads is lately built by the township a fair and convenient custom house," writes Manship. In 1619, the revenue collected here is set down at £3000 per annum. At the commencement of Charles I's reign the Dutch chapel was occupied for a time by Brinsley the famous Nonconformist, after his ejection by the Bishop of Norwich. It became a warehouse and sail loft, next, it was converted into a theatre, and subsequently again into a warehouse. The present building is occupied by the offices of the collectors of the Port and Ballast dues. Here also, upstairs, are domiciled the Public Library and Reading Room. The books are placed in a large room, originally built as the concert

room of a "Musical Society," established in 1814, and now extinct. The library contains upwards of 10,000 volumes, and the principal magazines of the day lie on the table. Among its curiosities are the privately printed publications of Mr. Dawson Turner. Here too are deposited the manuscript journals and note books of Sarah Martin, and an unique production of an Old Mortality of the district, who employed the closing years of his life in filling several folio volumes with copies of the inscriptions on every tombstone in St. Nicholas' churchyard, with biographical reminiscences and annotations. This library appears to be overlooked and neglected by Yarmouth visitors, although the advantage of a weekly subscription is offered them. Opposite the Port dues office is the Town crane.

Proceeding further south, on the modern front of an old house, converted into a public-house called the Sailors' Home, the ancient projecting irons have been retained.* These were employed to suspend tapestry along the exterior on occasions of public rejoicings. Over the centre is one of the merchants' marks, used at a very early period by the merchants of Yarmouth. Originally designed to stamp their goods, in time they partially supplied the place of armorial bearings, were introduced into heraldic shields and used by all the branches of the family. Frequently they were affixed to official documents in place of the subscriber's name.† A little further on, is a dwelling house (now

* "The long alienation between Yarmouth and Rotterdam, occasioned originally by the French Revolution, went far to sweep away the porches attached to the doors; those comfortable summer evening lounges, in which the father dreamed over his pipe or paper, while his family sat round him, chatting with and of the passers by. Together with the porches disappeared likewise the flat-topped limes, with the Dutch clinkers and the posts and chains in front, the mirrors, justly denominated 'espions,' that projected from the open windows, the merchant-marks, and, in great measure, the hooks on the walls for the suspension of tapestry 'on high days and holydays.' But this has not been all: alterations have been made of a more substantial character: fashion and variation in property are continually at work. Indeed there is not a single house in the whole length of the quay, that has not experienced more or less of their influence during the last seventy-two years."—TURNER'S SEPULCHRAL REMINISCENCES, 1848.

† A full description of these merchants' marks, and of the tokens issued in Great Yarmouth, by its tradesmen, illustrated with engravings, will be found in Palmer's History.

converted into two occupations, Nos. 46 and 47,) at which King Charles II. was entertained by Sir James Johnson, then Bailiff, when His Majesty visited Yarmouth, in 1671. Nearly opposite this house is a ferry communicating with Southtown. Lower down is a mansion built by the late Samuel Paget, Esq., and now occupied by the

Government Schools of Navigation and Design.

These excellent schools, were established mainly through the exertions of the Rev. J. B. Bampton, now of Dover. During the four years of their existence (1857-1861) 1014 students received instruction in the School of Art, and 360 in the Navigation School. At the last annual examination of the Navigation School five prizes were awarded, being a greater number than had been given to any other school; and 18 students passed their examinations before different marine boards, as masters and mates. For details of the medals, prizes, and studentships awarded in the School of Art, we cannot do better than refer the reader to the annual reports which have been printed, and may be had without charge at the schools. These reports are concise and very interesting.

The institution is completely furnished with casts, models, examples, instruments, &c.; a complete suit of national flags, presented by the ladies of Yarmouth and the neighbourhood; and signal racks and a collision board placed in the grand entrance hall. Additions are being continually made to the collection of pictures by amateur artists; so that there are very many objects of interest to attract visitors, who are invited to inspect the institution. In November, 1859, an exhibition of pictures was held, being the successful designs, paintings, &c., (90 in number,) of students of the Schools of Art throughout the kingdom, to which national medallions were awarded by Government in the competition at Kensington: and also a collection of works by amateur artists

of Yarmouth and its vicinity. In 1860 was also held an exhibition of paintings, drawings, &c., which was very useful in showing the progress made by native talent, and in directing public attention to the benefits to be derived from supporting a local School of Art.

Further on, at the corner of Friars' lane, is a house, No. 69, lately belonging to Vice-Admiral Sir George Parker, K.C.B., in which Mr. Bailiff Robins entertained King William III. in 1692. Friars' lane marks the north boundary of the precincts of the Black Friars' Monastery, of which no vestige remains; but a little further south is an old house, No. 75, with its original cut flint front, and curious chamber porch in excellent preservation, which was probably erected early in the 17th century by the Drury family; who had obtained by purchase the then "late dissolved House, Priory or Monastery," called the Black Friars, within the precincts of which this house was built.

A few yards further south, we come to the site of the South Gate, (called the Great Gate,) of which nothing now remains but the groove for the portcullis, on one side, with the base of one of the towers; but east and west of this gateway the town wall can be clearly traced. On the west of the gateway in 1590, "a great and mighty mount of earth much higher than the walls of the town" was built extending to the riverside, and planted with cannon to command the haven and Denes. A "lookout" was built on this mount for watching the harbours, but is now disused. In 1625, the Commissioners appointed to survey the defences of Yarmouth recommended that a "murdering piece" should be planted on the east tower of this gate. The South Gate was pulled down and removed in 1812.

Outside the Town wall stands the Mariners' Chapel, conducted by the Town Mission.

We are traversing the fishermen's quarter, so

graphically described in Dickens' *David Copperfield*:* "I smelt the fish and pitch and tar and oakum, and saw the sailors walking about, and the carts jingling up and down over the stony lanes bestrewn with bits of chips and little hillocks of sand; past gasworks, ropewalks, boatbuilders' yards, shipwrights' yards, ship-breakers' yards, caulkers' yards, riggers' lofts, smith's forges, and a great litter of such places, until we came out upon a dull waste and a desolate flat." On the right hand are the spacious warehouses of the Trinity Corporation, the depôt for the floating buoys moored in such profusion along the shoals and sands of this dangerous coast. Alongside the Quay is a spare light-ship, retained here to supply at a moment's notice the place of any which may sustain damage. Strongly moored near dangerous sandbanks by an anchor of peculiar construction, these light-ships indicate to the seamen the gat ways or channels through the sands. The warehouses beyond the Trinity Wharf, were formerly used as oil houses for the whale fishery.

Beyond are the Gas Works, first constructed in 1824, but considerably enlarged in 1859 and 1861, and the property of a public company. Here we quit the town and enter upon the South Denes. To the left are two of the principal public buildings of Yarmouth, its Royal Hospital and its Militia Barracks.

The Royal Hospital.

This fine building, intended at first for a Naval Hospital, was erected by Government in 1809, at a cost of £120,000. In 1815, 600 wounded soldiers from Waterloo were lodged in it. After the termination of the war it became almost useless, but in 1844 it was

* Surely the most charming of all the works of this gifted writer. Nevertheless, we altogether demur to the accuracy of its local colouring, so far as it refers to Yarmouth. Our Dryasdust predilections may have something to do with it, but we conceive that it is not on the beach, but by its quay side and under the shadow of its old church, that a true conception of the characteristics of Yarmouth is to be picked up.

converted into a Military Lunatic Asylum, for which it was extremely well adapted. When the late war against Russia broke out, the lunatics were removed and the building was again fitted up as a Naval Hospital, but was never used; and on the return of peace it was made over to the Military Service, and has ever since been used as a Military Hospital; and hither our mutilated heroes from India, have been brought to recover from their wounds or to regain their impaired health. Recovery has in most cases been rapid, and the mortality very little as compared with similar establishments. The entrance at the north leads into a spacious court-yard, where are the residences of Captain Jervois, the commandant, and of the medical officers. The main building is entered by a gate, opposite which is a spacious quadrangle ornamented with gardens and walks. Divine Service is regularly held in the chapel. The arrangement of everything within this hospital, which comprises an area of about fifteen acres, is admirable."

The Militia Barracks.

a handsome range of red brick buildings with stone dressings, are a short distance from the Military Hospital. They were erected for the accommodation of the staffs of the East Norfolk Militia and of the Norfolk Artillery Militia.*

Before us rise the lofty and graceful proportions of the

Nelson Column,

and on the right the heights of Gorleston, picturesquely crowned with gardens and private residences. No site could have been selected more appropriate for a memorial to Norfolk's most illustrious son than the south Denes of Yarmouth. Rising to a height of 144 feet it forms a conspicuous landmark. Designed by William Wilkins, the first stone was laid with great

* There are two regiments of Norfolk Militia, the West or 1st. Regiment: the East or 2nd Regiment.

ceremony on the 15th of August, 1817, in the presence of a numerous assemblage of naval and military officers, and an immense concourse of spectators. The pillar is of the Grecian Doric order, and beautifully fluted; upon the plinth are the names of the different ships on board which the gallant admiral's flag was so valorously displayed, and the coping of the terrace beneath is inscribed in a similar manner with the titles of his most celebrated battles. On each side of the pedestal is a flight of steps to the terrace, which affords a promenade round the shaft. The roof is supported by caryatides, surmounted by a ball and figure of Britannia, holding in her hand a trident and laurel wreath.* On the east side of the pedestal are the names of the committee, architect, &c., engaged in the building; and on the west, an appropriate Latin inscription, from the pen of Mr. Serjeant Frere. It has recently been repaired by public subscription, and inclosed with an ornamental iron railing, from a design by Mr. A. W. Morant. The fatigue of an ascent will be repaid by a prospect extending to the utmost limit of human vision. In clear weather the spire of Norwich cathedral may be seen. The keeper of the monument, James Sharman, is one of the few survivors of Trafalgar, and has held the appointment for more than 40 years.†

* The figure of Britannia was struck by lightning in June, 1860, and the left hand and the trident broken off. A lightning conductor has since been put up.

† It would be unjust to omit in this brief notice of Sharman an act of heroism (common we are happy to believe amongst the seamen of this coast.) performed by him in 1829. On the 25th of November, the Hammond brig, bound from Newcastle to London, parted from her anchor in a violent storm, and drove ashore between the monument and the harbour's mouth, several hundred yards from the beach. No boat could approach her, and during the night the brig parted. About seven in the evening, one of the coast-guards reported at the Fort public house that he heard groans upon the wreck, and Sharman learning this, accompanied by a man named Smith, went down to the beach, and tying a rope to his waist struggled through the surf to the wreck. The night was dark and the sea running high. Three times carried off his legs by the waves, the fourth he was flung upon the wreck, where he found a man clinging to the breast hook, who informed him that three of his comrades had but just been swept away. Taking the rope from his own body Sharman attached it to the man, and plunging with him into the surf, both were safely hauled ashore by Smith.

INSCRIPTION.

HORAT. DOM. NELSON,

Quem, acerrimum præ cæteris in militiâ navali propugnatorem,
BRITANNIA,

Dum vixit, studiis et honoribus,
Amisum, luctu prosequabatur,

Quem, triumphis in omni regione insignitum,
Ob consiliorum constantiam et indomitam fortitudinis ardorem,
ORBIS TERRARUM

Universus reformidabat.

NELSONUM illum NORFOLCIA,

Suum esse natalibus, et honestâ prosapiâ, et pueritiæ institutione,
Suum ingenio, moribus, animo gloriatur.

Tanti nominis Famam

Ære et saxo perenniorem futuram,
Concives Norfolcienses, sumptibus collatis
Columnâ extructâ commemorare voluerunt.

Natus MDCLVIII.

Militiam obiit MDCLXXI.

Centies fere Quinquagies pugnam cum hostibus commisit victor,
inter multa, Aboukiræ, Aug. MDCCXVIII.

Hafniæ, Apr. MDCCCI.

Trafalgaræ, Oct. MDCCCV.

Quod supremum tot præclare gestorum facinus
Patriæ funestâ, sibi dulci et decorâ
Morte consecravit.

TRANSLATION.

HORATIO LORD NELSON,

Whom, as her foremost champion in naval fight,
BRITANNIA,

Living,—with devotion and honours,

Dying,—followed after, with her lamentations,
of whom, renowned in all lands for his triumphs,

of whose firmness in counsel, of the undaunted ardour of whose
courage,

the whole world stood in awe.

This NELSON,—NORFOLK,

her own by birth, by honorable lineage, by early training,
her own in genius, in character, proudly claims,

The future fame of such a name

outlasting brass or stone,

his fellow citizens of Norfolk, at their mutual cost,
by up-reared column have sought to commemorate.

Born, 1758;

Appeared in arms, 1771;

In near one hundred and fifty engagements with enemies.

As victor waged war,
 Memorably at Aboukir, August, 1798;
 Copenhagen, April, 1801;
 Trafalgar, October, 1805:
 Which crowning act of so many splendid achievements,
 he consecrated by a death,
 Mournful to his country, sweet and glorious to himself.

Proportions of the Column.

TOTAL HEIGHT, 144-ft.—Figure of Britannia, 13-ft 8-in.—Ball, 4-ft. 8-in.—Caryatides, 7-ft.—Shaft, 65-ft.—Capital and Podium, 14-ft.—Basement, 24-ft. 6-in.—Terrace, 8-ft.—WIDTH OF TERRACE, 50-ft.—Lower diameter of Column, 12-ft. 10-in.—Upper diameter, 10-ft.—Interior diameter, 7-ft.—Number of Steps, 217.

Turning southwards from the monument to the haven side, a ferry will carry us across and we will continue our route down to the haven's mouth. Our path lies by the water's edge. Watching the shipping dropping down the stream, or the bustling little steam tugs towing up some tall vessel deeply laden, through a sheet of water almost tranquil as a mill pool; with the dash of the waves on the shore in our ears, and their crests filling the horizon stretched before us, the mind vividly realises the ideas of peace and rest which the word haven summons up. The visitor who takes his stand at the pier's head on a stormy day, may often witness a scene replete with interest and excitement: as he glances through the spray at the labouring vessels seeking refuge, now tacking, now beating up, until the fitting moment can be seized,—when making for the narrow entrance, they rush, steered with a dexterous helm, across the bar, and amid the hailing cheers of friends and mates glide alongside the sheltering pier.

It was from the heights above the harbour's mouth, which we would strongly urge our visitor to ascend, that the greatest of English landscape painters selected his striking view of Yarmouth. It is curious to note the liberties which Turner has taken with the foreground of his subject; so as to produce a powerful

and effective picture. The poet painter's eye, "with a fine phrenzy rolling," is visible throughout,—in its vast expanse of land and sea and sky, in its hurrying clouds, in the forest of white sails fleeing before the breeze.*

Valued by what it has cost to create, their Haven must be the most highly prized possession of the inhabitants of Yarmouth. Six times destroyed by the fury of the winds and waves, the seventh remains to this day a monument of indomitable energy and perseverance. The early annals of the town are filled with the losses, troubles, lawsuits, and other miseries occasioned by the repeated choking up of successive harbours. Manship, in whose day the haven was finally constructed as we now see it, and who witnessed the suffering occasioned by the destruction of the previous one, breaks into raptures whenever he alludes to it. He describes it as a peerless work, unmatchable by any of a like subject within the whole realm of England. The earliest channel recorded was called Grubb's haven,† and lay between Yarmouth and Caister. The town began naturally to stretch out in that direction, which led to continual boundary disputes between the Lords of Caister and the town. This, choking up with sand at the time of the Norman Conquest, the inhabitants made use of a channel running four miles south of the

* "The sea in Great Yarmouth should have been noticed for its expression of water under a fresh gale, seen in enormous extent from a great elevation. There is almost every form of sea in it: rolling waves dashing on the pier; successive breakers rolling to the shore; a vast horizon of multitudinous waves; and winding canals of calm water along the sands, bringing fragments of bright sky down into their yellow waste."—RUSKIN'S MODERN PAINTERS.

† The precise position of this channel became at a very early period matter of dispute between Caister and Yarmouth, the question involving the right to 400 acres of land. Many curious depositions were given before the commission appointed to settle the quarrel; Yarmouth adducing that it had maintained upon it "a payer of galows for execution to be done upon felons;" Robert Whaymond deposed that he had seen "xiiii. persons hanged upon the same at one time;" Adam Godfrey stated that in 1467 he had seen xiiii. or xv. hanging at one time upon the same galows. Richard Russe deposed that he had seen the galows, "and divers men hanging upon the same," at which time his father had said these words to him, "Thou seest how they be served, therefore be thou ware by them." Various instances were cited of the corpses of drowned persons, washed up the channel, having been buried in Yarmouth churchyard. The Commissioners however, settled the matter by dividing the debateable ground between the litigants.

town, below Corton, which shoaled up in 1336. Ten years later, Edward III granted the petition of the town to allow a new haven (No. 1) to be cut north of Corton, and nearer the town; it was made at an enormous cost, and in twenty-six years became blocked up. In 1393, Richard II gave permission to cut another (2) at the Gorleston north ferry, adjacent to the town. This had decayed sixteen years after, and in 1408 a license was obtained from Henry IV, and grants in aid given to construct a new haven (3) on the site of the original channel between Yarmouth and Caistor, and this at a great cost was kept open for a century. The heavy burden these continual charges entailed upon the town impoverished it, its fisheries decayed, its inhabitants migrated. The town was utterly unable to pay its taxes, and during several reigns indulgences and immunities were granted it. In 1503, another attempt to construct a haven (4) was made nearer the town. This was kept open for twenty years. In 1528, the town petitioned Henry VIII for assistance in cutting a new haven (5), which, Manship says, ran very near, if not in the very place of the present one. It was destroyed in a very short period. "Considering that they could not live without a haven, which should have passage into the sea and the sea into it," in 1548 they set to work again to construct a new one (6) a mile nearer to the South gate. Casting about for the necessary funds, the burgesses, with the example of their Sovereign before them, passed an order for the sale of the costly ornaments, numerous pieces of plate, vestments and other goods of St. Nicholas' church.* "The houses and rents were not spared, the bells in the steeple not forgotten, neither was the hospital of the Blessed Virgin free from

* The sum realised by this spoil of St. Nicholas, is set down by Manship at the large amount for that period of £997 6s. 6d., considerably more than half the funds raised on this occasion. From a return of Church goods, in the Norfolk Churches, made 6 Ed. VI. (1552), it would seem that the churchwardens received a reprimand for their sacrilege. "Yermouth: The certificate of vs Nicholas Fenne and Richard Bohun, Churchwardens ther. We certifie that we have sold so moche churche plate as extende to the sum

taxation, and lastly the inhabitants of Yarmouth contributed to the work very beautifully."

In the year following the cutting across the South Denes was commenced, "after a solemn stately procession, and a learned sermon upon that head, by one then so called Sir John Bland, minister of the congregation." The works were interrupted by the invasion of the rebels, during Ketts' insurrection in 1549, who, enraged at their repulse from the town, maliciously destroyed the works. Resumed and suspended from time to time during several years, the task was at last abandoned, the site selected proving useless. Thoroughly disheartened, the town now suffered all the ills of an inundation, so great that "men might row up and down the streets." Several years elapsed, during which the shipping had to be dragged across the Denes by capstans and windlasses. Many consultations took place, but no resolution was come to until 1560, when another haven (7) was surveyed. The old site of the fifth haven was selected, and all the workmen of the town employed in digging. So deep was the interest felt by the inhabitants, "that voluntarily there laboured of men, women, and children, to the number of 1000 persons;" "whereby," writes Manship, "it plainly appeared what ardent affection and sweet love nature hath implanted into our hearts towards our country. Therefore it would have rejoiced the heart of any man to see the forward disposition and willing working of the people, some standing in water up to the middle, others filling and carrying of buckets, the magistrates overseeing, with many of their brethren and others encouraging the people." An outlet was made in the space of a few days, ten feet deep at low tide. A breastwork was next commenced to confine the channel, and the remains of our Lady's

and value of one hundrith marks, viz., xliij. $\frac{1}{2}$ v. onc., liij. gr., at liijs. viijd. ye onc. Which seyde plate so sold by the consent and assent of the most part of th' inhabitants of the Town, was imployed to th' use of makinge of the haven there. And we knowlege oure selves straightly comanded neither to sell nor alienat any plate, Jewells, ornaments, or belies from henceforth."

church, at Southtown, were appropriated to the purpose. To construct the important works at the harbour's mouth, "a certain Dutchman, named Joas Johnson, a man of very rare knowledge and experience in works of this nature," was brought over. This was a fortunate step. The dearly bought experience of the Hollanders, in the erection of those vast dykes and embankments which rampart Holland, was successfully applied; and happily for the prosperity of Yarmouth the haven was at last completed, as we now see it. Thus in the course of two centuries seven new havens, in different situations, had been successively constructed at average intervals of thirty years. Not least among the benefits resulting, was the reclaiming of many thousand acres of marsh land, hitherto continually overflowed with salt water. The North and South Piers were built under his direction, with foundations of huge stakes and piles firmly driven in the ground. Meanwhile the funds and means of the townspeople were utterly exhausted. Queen Elizabeth was petitioned, and graciously remitted the export duties on grain. Contributions were levied on the adjacent district, and shares were taken in the first great lottery mentioned in English history.*

The charges for keeping the haven in repair were very great, and the town a constant suppliant to the

* Fifteen shares in this lottery were taken with the town's money, and sent in the name of Rauff Wolhous, bailiff, with the following motto or 'posy,'—

'Yermouth haven, God send thee spede,

'The Lord he knowyth thy great nede.'

Forty-seven shares were taken by the members of the corporation, in the name of Thomas Bettys, bailiff, whose 'posy' was,—

'If Yermouth GREAT in fortune's favor be,

'The GREATEST lott may chauce to fall to me.'

The gentlemen of the town took thirty-four shares, sending the following 'posy,' with the name of John Gosselyne,—

'The fyrste ne seconde lott I crave,

'The thyrd yt ys that I wolde have.'

And the following 'posy' was sent for the ladies,—

'A smalle stocke with good successe,

'May shortly growe to good incesse.'

The drawing of this lottery began on the eleventh of January, 1569, at the west door of St. Paul's cathedral, and continued incessantly, day and night, till the sixth of May following. Notwithstanding the promise of a 'great number' of prizes, and 'generally without any blankes,' it does not appear that any of the Yarmouth adventurers were successful.

Crown for relief, which was granted in the remission of dues, and a brief for a general collection throughout the kingdom. In a petition to Parliament sent in 1650, the town requests "that you will be pleased to grant us such a part of the lead and other useful materials of that vast and altogether useless cathedral in Norwich, towards the buiding of a workhouse to employ our almost starved poor, and repairing our piers."

Numerous plans, surveys, reports, and acts of Parliament exist relating to the deepening, securing, and maintenance of this Haven. Vessels drawing 12 feet of water can cross the bar at the harbour's mouth at high tide. The South Pier is 800 yards in length, every main pile formed out of the trunk of an oak tree. The expense of cleansing the harbour and repairing the piers, quays, &c., lately averaged about £2000 per annum, and according to Swinden's History, about £250,000 was thus expended from 1567 to 1770. It has been estimated that three times that sum has been sunk in making and repairing the haven and piers.* For meeting this vast expenditure, powers have been granted by numerous acts of Parliament to levy various dues. The haven and piers are managed under acts passed in the present and last reign, by 12 commissioners whose jurisdiction extends over more than 100 miles of inland river navigation. Duties are levied on all vessels entering the port, or discharging cargo in the roads or taking refuge. In 1861 the duties amounted to £8475. Dues are also levied by the corporation for local purposes, including duties on coal, "measurage," on corn and "cranage." These amounted in 1861 to £1883 10s. 8d. At one time the dues produced about £10,000 a year. They were greatly reduced in 1835 to compete with the new channel opened up by the Norwich and Lowestoft navigation. In 1856 they amounted to £7498. Close by the North Pier, which acts as a breakwater, was formerly a fort

* Mr. Richard Taylor, in his *Geology of East Norfolk*, computes the total expenditure in making and keeping up the Yarmouth outlet to the sea, at £1,500,000. All these statistics are very loose.

for the protection of the harbour. It was removed not many years ago.* Extending from the north pier is a dangerous shoal for vessels running for the harbour in stormy weather.

As we return along the water side, if it is autumn, we shall probably find the fishermen busily engaged in making ready for the coming herring season. Numerous vessels sloping down to the water's edge are being cleaned, caulked, and re-painted. The nets removed from the adjoining warehouses are carried to the Denes, and there spread out, carefully examined, and repaired. To the crowd of men, women, and children actively employed in it, it seems a task of absorbing interest. There must be a fascination, an expectancy in preparing for that great harvest of the sea,—that crop reaped without either sowing of seed or paying of rent, with its lottery of prizes and blanks, its beggary or good luck, its hardships and perils, which we landmen hardly enter into. The seaman's toil seems sufficiently homely and prosaic, but it has its poetic aspect too, and to realise it we cannot quit the harbour and quay side in better company than that of the author of "Modern Painters."

The Fisher Boat and the Coaster.

"Any ship, from lowest to proudest, has due place in that architecture of the sea; beautiful, not so much in this or that piece of it, as in the unity of all, from cottage to cathedral, into their great buoyant dynasty. Yet, among them, the fisher-boat, corresponding to the cottage on the land (only far more sublime than a cottage can be), is on the whole the thing most venerable. I doubt if ever academic grove were half so fit for profitable meditation as the little strip of shingle between two black, steep, overhanging sides of stranded fishing-boats. The clear, heavy water-edge of ocean rising and falling close to their bows, in that unaccountable way the sea has always in calm weather, turning the pebbles over and over as if with a rake, to look for something, and then stopping a moment down at the bottom of the bank, and coming up again

* It appears in the print after Turner's drawing. The fort was erected in 1653, and mounted with four 6-pounders, and six 24-pounders. The bastions were circular, and built of red brick. On the 5th May, 1832, the south bastion was washed down; the fort then fell into decay, and the materials were sold in 1834. It is in contemplation by Government, to erect batteries on the same site.

with a little run and clash, throwing a foot's depth of salt crystal in an instant between you and the round stone you were going to take in your hand ; sighing, all the while, as if it would infinitely rather be doing something else. And the dark flanks of the fishing-boats all aslope above, in their shining quietness, hot in the morning sun, rusty and seamed with square patches of plank nailed over their rents ; just rough enough to let the little flat-footed fisher children haul or twist themselves up to the gunwales, and drop back again along some stray rope ; just round enough to remind us, in their broad and gradual curves, of the sweep of the green surges they know so well, and of the hours when those old sides of seared timber, all ashine with the sea, plunge and dip into the dark green purity of the mounded waves more joyfully than a deer lies down among the grass of the spring, the soft white cloud of foam opening momentarily at the bows, and fading or flying high into the breeze where the sea-gulls toss and shriek,—and the joy and beauty of it, all the while, so mingled with the sense of unfathomable danger, and the human effort and sorrow going on perpetually from age to age, waves rolling for ever, and winds moaning for ever, and faithful hearts trusting and sickening for ever, and brave lives dashed away about the rattling beach like weeds for ever ; and still at the helm of every lonely boat, through starless night and hopeless dawn, His hand who spread the fisher's net over the Sidonian palaces, and gave into the fisher's hand the keys of the kingdom of heaven.

Next after the fishing-boat—which, as I said, in the architecture of the sea represents the cottage, more especially the pastoral or agricultural cottage, watchful over some pathless domain of moorland or arable, as the fishing-boat swims humbly in the midst of the broad green fields and hills of ocean, out of which it has to win such fruit as they can give, and to compass with net or drag such flocks as it may find,—next to this ocean-cottage ranks in interest, it seems to me, the small, overwrought, under-crewed, ill-caulked merchant brig or schooner ; the kind of ship which first shows its couple of thin masts over the low fields or marshes as we near any third-rate seaport ; and which is sure somewhere to stud the great space of glittering water, seen from any sea-cliff, with its four or five square-set sails. Of the larger and more polite tribes of merchant vessels, three-masted, and passenger carrying, I have nothing to say, feeling in general little sympathy with people who want to go anywhere ; nor caring much about anything, which in the essence of it expresses a desire to get to other sides of the world ; but only for homely and stay-at-home ships, that live their life and die their death about English rocks. Neither have I any interest in the higher branches of commerce, such as traffic with spice islands, and portorage of painted tea-chests or carved ivory ; for all this seems to me to fall under the head of commerce of the drawing-room ; costly, but not venerable.

I respect in the merchant service only those ships that carry coals, herrings, salt, timber, iron, and such other commodities, and that have disagreeable odour and unwashed decks. But there are few things more impressive to me than one of these ships lying up against some lonely quay in a black sea-fog, with the furrow traced under its tawny keel far in the harbour slime. The noble misery that there is in it, the might of its rent and strained unseemliness, its wave-worn melancholy, resting there for a little while in the comfortless ebb, unpitied, and claiming no pity; still less honoured, least of all conscious of any claim to honour; casting and craning by due balance whatever is in its hold up to the pier, in quiet truth of time; spinning of wheel, and slackening of rope, and swinging of spade, in an accurate cadence as a waltz music; one or two of its crew, perhaps, away forward, and a hungry boy and yelping dog eagerly interested in something from which a blue dull smoke rises out of a pot or pan; but dark-browed and silent, their limbs slack like the ropes above them, entangled as they are in those inextricable meshes about the patched knots and heaps of ill-reefed sable sail. What a majestic sense of service in all that languor! the rest of human limbs and hearts, at utter need, not in sweet meadows or soft air, but in harbour slime and biting fog; so drawing their breath once more, to go out again, without lament, from between the two skeletons of pier-heads, vocal with wash of under wave, into the grey troughs of tumbling brine; there, as they can, with slackened rope, and patched sail, and leaky hull, again to roll and stagger far away amidst the wind and salt sleet, from dawn to dusk and dusk to dawn, winning day by day their daily bread; and for last reward, when their old hands, on some winter night, lose feeling along the frozen ropes, and their old eyes lose mark of the lighthouse quenched in foam, the so-long impossible Rest, that shall hunger no more, neither thirst any more,—their eyes and mouths filled with the brown sea-sand.”—*Harbours of England*, by John Ruskin.

II. THE MARKET PLACE.

"'Tis to this church I call thee, and that place
Where slept our fathers when they'd run their race:
We too shall rest, and then, our children keep
Their road in life, and then, forgotten sleep;
Meanwhile the building slowly falls away,
And, like the builders, will in time decay."—CRABBE.

Returning to the point from whence we started at the Quay side,—to reach the centre of the town, the visitor will have to traverse Broad Row and Market Row, two of the chief thoroughfares of Yarmouth, both well flagged and lined with handsome shops. These lead out into the Market Place, a wide and spacious area, three acres in extent, "Yarmouth hath time out of mind enjoyed by prescription a very fair Market, holden upon Saturday in every week. Which Market Place was in Anno 1385, appointed, prepared, and paved, and a cross and pillory built on it." This cross in time decaying, in 1509, a very fair cross was newly erected, "and very fairly paved and leaded for the safe guarding of the people from wet, and for the dry keeping of the corn." This in time also decaying, another, not much inferior was built in 1604, "for the defence of the women bringing butter, cheese, and such-like victuals to the Market." This last cross was removed in 1836 and its site marked by a cruciform stone pavement.*

* This Market Cross is engraved in Preston's picture of Yarmouth, and in Butcher's large and curious view of the Market Place. A spacious house for country butchers was erected in 1546, and shambles constructed for the town butchers in 1551. In 1611, an ordinance was made "that there should be no stalls in the market for drapers, grocers, and haberdashers, as had been the practice heretofore. In 1550, it was ordered that none should buy or sell before the market bell rang in the morning, or after it was rung at three o'clock in the afternoon,—except butchers, who might sell sheep in the shambles at any time except during Divine service on Sundays. In 1551, no butcher was allowed to sell his meat at home, but was required to bring it into the 'market houses.' Country butchers were required to bring beef as well as veal to market. In 1552, butchers were to discontinue the practice of making candles, and to sell their fat to the tallow chandlers: and by an old ordinance, they were to sell no bull's flesh unless it were balted."—PALMER.

A cage, pillory, and stocks, formed part of the appurtenances of the Market, for the prompt punishment of the vendors of short weight, unwholesome meat, and deficient measure. These have all disappeared. Two Markets are now held weekly, on Wednesday and Saturday. They are celebrated for the quality, and abundance of the vegetable, fruit, and poultry, exposed for sale. A curious feature to a stranger's eye, are the peds or stalls in which the market women shelter from the weather. The Fish Market, a large railed space on the eastern side, was erected in 1844. It is generally well stocked with turbot, soles, whittings, mackerel, herrings, cod, haddock, and smelts, in their seasons. From this point a glance is worth taking at the picturesque, irregular, and old-fashioned facades of the shops which line the western side. Many still retain those features of a bye-gone century which the modern rage for plate glass fronts bids fair to exterminate in the lifetime of the present generation. Two chartered Fairs were held here,—one on Shrove Monday and Tuesday, formerly designated as "Cock Fair," from the cruel custom of "cock throwing" prevalent at Shrove-tide.—The other, on Friday and Saturday in Easter week. Until 1715 this last was held on Good Friday.

St. Nicholas' Church.

At the northern end of the Market Place, approached by an avenue of lime trees, planted on the Church plain—its grand proportions set off by the ample area surrounding it—stands the fine old church of St. Nicholas dedicated to the patron saint of mariners. To a stranger's eye, this venerable building is the most striking evidence remaining of the antiquity of Yarmouth, and its great commercial importance, from a very early period. Scarred and decayed by the hand of time, defaced by fanaticism, and mutilated by bad taste, it has notwithstanding, descended to the inhabitants of Yarmouth a noble monument of the piety

of their forefathers. Within its walls and in the precincts of its vast churchyard, lie buried as seed sown for the resurrection, a countless multitude; the dwellers in Yarmouth for more than twenty generations. The history of the town, its civil, municipal, and ecclesiastical annals, are all bound up with those of this church. Though much has been done within the last few years to wipe off the reproach of past neglect and barbarism, much still remains to be effected. Happily this is a church restoring age, and all who visit the interior of St. Nicholas, cannot surely leave it without recording the wish that this, the largest parish church in England, may, ere long be opened up from west end to chancel in all its pristine grandeur of proportions.

"Herbert, surnamed Robert Losinga* *about* the year of our Lord 1123, which was in the 23rd year of Henry I, did begin to erect and build a most beautiful, large, spacious, and lightsome church, not much inferior to many cathedrals in this kingdom, naming it St. Nicholas," writes Manship.† Of this remarkable man, the William of Wykeham of his age, but little is recorded, and that, the "hostile grudges" of "Monkish writers' pennes."‡ Of wealthy Suffolk parentage, he was educated at the Monastery of Fecamp, in Normandy, of which he subsequently became prior. His abilities led early to public employment under the sons of the Conqueror, Duke Robert, William Rufus, and Henry I successively. By Rufus he was made Abbot of Thetford, "by flattery and fat payment" says Bale.

* The glosing tongue.

† On the site of an earlier one dedicated to St. Bennet, and which was standing in the time of Edward the Confessor.

‡ All were not hostile, for WEVER in his *Ancient Funeral Monuments* quoting Pitsoeus de *Illustribus Angliæ Scriptoribus*, records the panegyric of an admirer of Bishop Herbert.—"He was a man earnestly addicted to the studies of all virtues and good learning, mild, affable, comely of personage, graceful of countenance, blameless in his carriage, and pure, innocent, and sincere, in the course of his life;" and SIR THOMAS BROWNE, quoting William of Malmesbury, writes "he was *vir pecuniosus*, which his great works declare, and had always this good saying of St. Jerome in his mouth, "*erravimus juvenes, emendemus senes.*"

Proceeding to Rome for investiture he obtained the Pope's sanction for the transfer of the see of Thetford to Norwich, and thereupon erected a cathedral and monastery; endowing them with "greate landes and possessions." In 1104, he was nominated Lord High Chancellor of England, by Henry I. Little is known of his acts in that capacity. He is dismissed with a single line in *Lord Campbell's Lives of the Chancellors*. Dispatched to Rome by Henry I to arrange some disputes with the Papal see, he fell sick on his journey home, and dying at Norwich, was buried before the high Altar of the Cathedral. A.D. 1119. To Bishop Losinga, the county of Norfolk is indebted for its stateliest religious edifices, its Cathedral, and Priory at Norwich, its Bishop's Palace, the fine Priory church of St. Margaret, at Lynn, St. Mary at Elmham, St. Leonard's at Norwich, and others. His latest was the church of St. Nicholas, Yarmouth, which by charter he annexed to the Monastery of Holy Trinity, Norwich. Manship, is in error in assigning 1123 as the date of its erection, as it was consecrated by the bishop the same year in which he died. It then comprised only a portion of the present nave and chancel, with transepts, and a tower at the intersection, all of which have been removed, except the tower which contains a few traces of Norman work in the windows of the upper part, and a Norman arcade. During this and the following century the church was enlarged, "decked, and beautified." The aisles of the church were so widened in order to contain side chapels or chantries* for the numerous guilds, as greatly to exceed in height and width the nave.† The chief additions were made by Bishop Middleton in the thirteenth century, but did not suffice for the space required for the numerous chapels, nineteen of which are enu-

* They were also called Mortuary chapels, from their containing the tombs of the founder and his family, and sometimes the principal benefactors.

† This is a most unusual arrangement. It may be seen however in the neighbouring church of Gorleston, where it arose from similar circumstances.

merated, each with its altar and ministering chaplain, and with a light burning perpetually before the image of the patron saint.

Many bequests were made for their endowment. The mode in which these chapels occupying the space of the bay of the arches in the side aisles, with the altars placed against the pillars looking east,—were distributed round the church, may be seen at the present day at Antwerp, and many of the continental churches. There appears to have been a rage or rivalry in setting up these chapels. “Thomas a Becket Archbishop of Canterbury, granted an inhibition against the men of Hastings, who attempted to build a chapel in Yarmouth church, contrary to a prohibition from the bishop of Norwich.” In 1330 an additional aisle was commenced at the west end by the young men of the town to measure 107 feet in length and 47 in breadth and to be called the Bachelor’s aisle. The plague breaking out in 1348 and sweeping off 7000 of the inhabitants led to its being abandoned.

The high Altar, rich in plate, jewels, and vestments, was screened from the nave by a Rood Loft of elaborate and costly workmanship, erected by Roger de Haddiscoe, Prior of St. Olaves, in 1370, who also erected at the east end of the church a chapel dedicated to “our Lady of Arneburgh.” On the north of this was a “fair pair of organs:” on the south side of the chancel were the sedilia or seats for officiating priests, of stone, richly carved. Ten feet from the east end stood a stone reredos of rich perpendicular work, with numerous niches, containing figures of the apostles and saints.

In the spacious chancel aisles were enacted those sacred Dramas and Miracle Plays representing the life of Christ, so popular during the middle ages. To heighten the spectacular effects, mechanical contrivances were employed. Various entries for repairs occur in the Corporation books. The Star of the Magi with the lines and threads used in directing its movements, the Eastern Sepulchre with its fractured angels and

paschals afford curious glimpses of the stage properties.* The removal of whitewash has recently brought to light the remains of paintings on the north wall of the chancel. The walls were also decorated with rich hangings of arras, and from the roof a ship was suspended typical of the church. All the roofs were waggon shaped. Those in the side aisles and transepts are pannelled with bosses at the intersections, with carved designs of flowers; fruit, the beatitudes, &c. The bosses in the south aisle display a series of 140 Armorial shields, including those of Edward III and his sons, the Fastolfes, Bardolfes, and other Norfolk families.

In common with the many other fine churches of this district, the adornment of St. Nicholas had probably reached its highest pitch at the commencement of the Tudor epoch,—the period when Perpendicular Gothic attained its richest and most elaborate development. It was during the century which preceded the Reformation that the churches of East Anglia were filled with that profusion of wood carving, those hammer beam roofs, rood screens, font covers, stalls, and shrine work, many of which remain their chief glories at the present day. The Reformation came, and that wealth which former generations of nobles and merchants had lavished on St. Nicholas, served but to sharpen the cupidity and hasten the destroying rage of the multitudes, who made the honest zeal of the early reformers the cloak for their own sacrilegious greed. Norfolk, possessed an unusual number of religious houses, some well endowed, and here as elsewhere, whilst the spoliation of the fabrics of God's houses occupied and distracted the meaner sort, the wealthier classes made haste to appropriate and digest the more substantial plunder of their lands and endowments. St. Nicholas became a scene of havoc and desecration, mainly wrought by order of the Corporation.

* There are many singular payments entered in the Corporation accounts of this period. In 1465, dogs appear to have required the special attentions of a beadle engaged at a stipend of 1*IV*d per quarter to restrain their incursions.

Its bells, plate, jewels, and vestments, were sold, its side chapels with their altars, relics, statues, and pictures, swept away, its stained glass shattered, its rood loft torn down and removed.

On the chancel, the most richly decorated portion of the fabric, the devastating fury wreaked itself with the greatest animosity. The reredos and sedilia with their beautiful carving and rich colouring, were mutilated, their statues and images demolished or defaced, and the altar removed. To banish from the worshippers' eyes every vestige of the former ritual, the chancel end was boarded up. In 1635, when the Vicar General visited the church, he ordered this partition of boards to be removed, and the easterly end of the chancel, "to be comely beautified and adorned, as well in wall, pavement, and windows; and the communion table to be placed at the east end thereof; and the rails to be set in a comely manner." The east window which had been walled up, he ordered to be re-opened, and "comely and decently glazed with glass."

To a Protestant's eyes, the most painful spoliation of that period, was that which emptied the graves of their dead, and deprived them of their epitaphs and memorials. No church could have suffered more than did St. Nicholas. *Weever*, who visited the churches of the diocese, and published in 1631, his '*Ancient Funeral Monuments of Great Britain*' records, "all the funeral monuments of antiquity in this church are utterly defaced; inscription nor epitaph now remaining, except that this may pass current for one,

"ELYN BENAKER, mercy dooth craue,
God on her sowl, mercy mote haue."

In 1551, all the sepulchral brasses in St. Nicholas had been taken up by order of the corporation, and sent to London to be cast into weights "for the use of the town." In 1560, the churchwardens removed the gravestones from the churchyard, and sent them to Newcastle to be converted into grindstones. Even the corporation could not stomach this, and the offen-

ders were fined "for having acted contrary to the trust put in them," one half the fine being pocketed by the corporation, and the remainder given to the church.*

The introduction of high pews into our churches, dates from the delivery of the longwinded sermons of the puritan divines. The corporation of Yarmouth were not slow to avail themselves of the lazy innovation. Manship has naively described the arrangement in his day of the municipality, and we quote it to shew the degrading influence which the corporation processions and posturings exercised on the reverential conducting of the services of the church. "In the middle chancel southwards, were seated the bailiffs and

* It was the sad spectacle of this wicked spoliation in so many churches, that led WEEVER to cry out "But the foulest and most inhuman action of these times, was the violation of funeral monuments. Marbles which covered the dead were digged up, and put to other uses (as I have partly touched before), tombs hackt and hewn a-pieces; images or representations of the defunct, broken, erased, cut, or dismembered, inscriptions or epitaphs, especially if they began with an ORATE PRO ANIMA, or concluded with CUIUS ANIMÆ PROPITIUS DEUS. For greediness of the brass, or for that they were thought to be antichristian, pulled out from the sepulchres, and purloined; dead carcases, for gain of their stone or leaden coffins, cast out of their graves, notwithstanding this request, cut or engraven upon them, PROPTER MISERECORDIAM JESU REQUISCANT IN PACE."

This barbarous rage against the dead, led to a proclamation in the second year of the reign of Elizabeth. "The Queene's Majestie understanding, that, by meanes of sundrie people, partly ignorant, partly malicious, or covetous; there hath been, of late years, spoiled and broken, certain ancient monuments some of metal, some of stone, which were erected up as well in Churches as in other public places, within this realm, onely to shew a memory to the posterity of the persons there buried, or that had been benefactors to the building, or dotations, of the same churches, or publique places, and not to nourish any kind of superstition. By which means, not onely the Churches, and places, remaine, at this present day, spoiled, broken, and ruined, to the offence of all noble and gentle hearts, and the extinguishing of the honourable and good memory of sundrie vertuous and noble persons deceased; but also the true understanding of divers families in this realme (who have descended of the blood of the same persons deceased) is thereby so darkened, as the true course of their inheritance may be hereafter interrupted, contrary to justice; besides many other offences that doe hereof ensue." The proclamation goes on to prohibit any further destruction, under penalties of commitment to gaol, reparation or open penance, and fine. It then proceeds, "and whereas the covetousnesse of certaine persons is such, that as patrons of the churches, or owners of the parsonages impropriated, or by some other colour or pretence, they do perswade with the parsonne and parishioners to take or throw downe the Beils of Churches and Chappels, and the lead of the same, converting the same to their own private gaine, and to the spoiles of the said places, and make such like alterations, as thereby they seeke a slanderous desolation of the places of prayer" Her Majestie expressly forbids the removal of bells or lead, under penalty of imprisonment or fine. This proclamation was followed up by another, more stringent and severe, twelve years later. Nevertheless adds Weever "they took small effect."

their brethren called the four and twenty, (the aldermen,): northward—the eight and forty (now common council men.) To these worthies, one minister read the lessons of the day whilst another did the like to the congregation in the body of the church. At the time of the litany the whole of the four and twenties and eight and forties, repaired to the body of the church in the middle aisle, there humbly kneeling and devoutly praying till the same were ended. Then did the said 24 go to their place in a gallery* built on the south side of the church for that purpose, the one half ascending at the East, the other half at the West, the bailiffs sitting in the midst among them; so did in like manner the chamberlains amongst the 48. But long since the seats of either of them be changed, and both the bailiffs in the one and the chamberlains in the other be very comely and magnificently placed at the east end, above the residue.” He goes on to add,—

“If I should write, I cannot express in words the excellency of the method of those great constitutions and orders, ordained for order and comeliness in that church, according to the use of the same observed. Nay, it will and may be marvelled at, yea, and scarcely believed, that so many thousands could be so conveniently contained and seated within so small a compass of hearing, and have place convenient, as in the same congregation be commonly assembled, it consisting at least of six thousand communicants: yet so well be the rooms and seats contrived, that there is space sufficient for every one that will be attentive to hear that which is there delivered. For, first, the bailiffs and aldermen their brethren, to the end that they, as those to whom the rule of the people is committed, may the better behold the demeanour of the whole congregation there assembled, be mounted on a gallery, six feet above the residue, on the south side of the church aforesaid, which doth contain in length from east to west, 50 feet; whose wives be seated directly before them, in a very neat chapel made for that purpose.† In the next rank or class before them, in one large and spacious room, which doth contain in length from east to west 65 feet, be those Eight-and forty which be of the Common

* This Alderman's gallery was removed in 1847, and the Mayor's seat, a characteristic specimen of last century's taste, was transferred to the court Room of the Toll House, where it still remains. A gallery erected at the lowest end of the church acquired the name of Mother Rust's Heightenings.

† Their seat was called “the Aldress Chapel.”

Council, placed every one according to his election of incoming, except those eight Constables taken out of that number, who do sit in two several rooms, to be ready by themselves when any sudden accident happeneth; every one of these enjoying the sight of his own wife, who directly sitteth also before him."

Lamentably as the church had suffered at the Reformation, further mutilations were in store. In 1649, the chancel was built up as it unhappily remains to this day. The Independents were dominant in Church and State, and demanded a part of the church for their services. The chancel was surrendered to them, and its arches bricked up. Doorways were broken through the walls, and the altar tomb of Thomas Crowmer, seven times Bailiff of Yarmouth, 1470—1497, was destroyed to form a doorway. At the Restoration the Independents were ejected. The chancel had fallen into decay, and the legal liability to repair it was for years matter of dispute between the inhabitants and the Dean and Chapter of Norwich.

In 1705, a proposal was made to the Corporation to erect a gallery in the nave. This was thankfully accepted, and duly perpetrated. To light it, two pillars on the south side of the nave were removed, throwing four elliptic arches into two semi-circular ones; endangering the safety of the fabric, and destroying the architectural character of the church. Subsequently the nave was entirely separated from the north aisle, by a wooden and glazed partition at the back of this gallery, and the north aisle entirely disused except as a place of sepulture. In 1744, the church was repaired, but the ruinous chancel left untouched. It continued to decay until, in 1784, the whole of the east end fell to the ground, carrying with it one of the windows on each side: at a vestry meeting, held in that year, it was resolved to take down the spire and north aisle of the church, and apply the proceeds of the sale of the materials "to the rendering the body of the church and old chancel a more decent and commodious place of worship." This extraordinary vote roused the

better feelings of the parishioners, and another vestry was summoned, at which the previous resolution was "revoked, cancelled, and made void." It was also resolved, that the recent damage should not be repaired at the expense of the parish. The Dean and Chapter of Norwich threw the burden on the Incumbent, Dr. Cooper, and the result was that the middle aisle was shortened ten feet; the wall being rebuilt with the rubbish, and an east window of carpenters' gothic inserted. A wooden altar screen was placed in front of the stone reredos.

At the beginning of this century, a series of unsightly but most costly reparations were carried out; brick and stucco were lavishly employed in patching up the exterior, and appear to have grievously disfigured the church, without contributing to its stability in any way.

The spire originally surmounting the tower was 186 feet high. Twisted from the effects of a fire in 1683, its aspect was like that of Chesterfield Church,

" Whichever way you turned your eye,
It always seemed to be awry."

And gave rise to a proverb "As crooked as Yarmouth steeple." Reported unsafe in 1803, it was taken down together with the pinnacles, and sold for £705. In 1806, an Act was obtained and 42 Trustees appointed for the repair of the tower and spire. A new spire of mean and stunted appearance was put up by Mr. Wilkins. The architect who surveyed the tower in 1846, reported that the removal of the original spire had been quite unnecessary. The exterior was at the same time plastered with lime at a cost exceeding £1000, to the destruction of its time-worn appearance. Up to 1819, the Trustees had expended £14,000, derived from a duty levied on coal, rates, and other sources. They presented a report applying for more money, and obtained a further Act enabling them to borrow £12,000, and to levy additional duties. During the progress of the works a preposterous plan was

submitted by James Wyatt, the Architect, the ravager of Hereford, Lichfield, Salisbury, and other Cathedrals,* for building a new church on the church plain, and leaving the old church to go to ruin. Happily a brighter day was near at hand. That movement for church restoration which seeks to enter into the spirit of the old Gothic builders, with reverential care, had been growing up. Yarmouth was now to be animated by it. In 1845 the Rev. H. Mackenzie, the Incumbent, sought to rouse his parishioners to the duty of providing increased church accommodation for the poor. His appeals were responded to, and a sum exceeding £5000, raised and applied to the restoration of the church. The galleries with the exception of those for the organ and school children were removed, all the pews were swept away and replaced by open sittings, accomodating 3,500 worshippers.† The two pillars on the south side of the nave were replaced, the ceilings re-coloured, and many of the windows restored. The spacious chancel containing room for 1,500 sittings still remains to be opened up.‡ Within the last few months a careful survey of the fabric has been made by Mr. Gilbert G. Scott, and we hear that plans are in preparation for a thorough restoration, and a public appeal for funds is contemplated at an early period, which shall extend beyond the limits of the district. When this much needed work shall have been accomplished, Yarmouth may lay claim to the possession of a parish church with an area for its worshippers of a magnitude unequalled in the kingdom, and with acoustic properties

* "On proceeding to the Cathedral (Lichfield), which from its distant appearance promised great things, what was my horror and astonishment on perceiving the west front to have been restored with brown cement, cracked in every direction, with heads worked with the trowel, devoid of all expression or feeling, crockets as bad, and a mixture of all styles. My surprise, however, ceased on the vergers informing me that the whole church was improved and beautified about thirty years ago, by the late Mr. Wyatt, yes, this monster of architectural depravity—this pest of Cathedral architecture—has been here: need I say more."—A. W. PUGIN.

† Including 1800 free seats. The architect employed in this restoration, was Mr. J. H. Hakewill.

‡ It is used for divine service for line regiments and the militia when quartered in the town.

so admirable, that the human voice is more audible than in many structures not a tithe of its dimensions. Few spectacles are more imposing than the present aspect of this large church, when crowded as is frequently the case during the summer months, with a congregation of four thousand worshippers.

Its present dimensions are 230 feet extreme length, nave, 150 feet, chancel, 80 feet, aisles, 118 feet, chancel aisles, 56 feet, width at transept, 154 feet, exclusive of transepts, 108 feet, nave, 30 feet, side aisles, 39 feet, height of church, 42 feet, to summit of spire 168 feet.

Among its most noteworthy features are its ancient Font of Purbeck Marble, standing near the great west door. The paint of the last century has been stripped off, and a careful restoration of it made at the cost of Mr. J. H. Hakewill. An altar tomb with crocketed canopies in the north aisle is called the Prior's tomb, and there is a somewhat similar one in the chancel north aisle. In the vestry in the north transept, is a curious library table, having six shelves for books, suspended between two discs, and so regulated by wheels within one of the discs, that the shelves continue horizontal whilst they revolve seriatim before the reader.* At the great west door, is a curious seat, formed by the bone of a whale. It formerly stood at the church gate, with the name, according to Hone, of "the devil's seat." In 1606, a charge of 8s. was made for painting it.

A beginning has been made to refill the windows with stained glass. The best at present is the memorial window, in the west end of the north aisle, to Sarah Martin, the prison visitor.†

The organ was built 1733, by Abraham Jordan, at a cost of £900, and has a great local reputation. It was repaired in 1812, by George England, Jordan's grand-

* The old books it contains, comprise folio editions of the Fathers, Greek and Hebrew Scriptures, chronicles, and miscellaneous theology. A catalogue of them will be found in Swindon.

† For a notice of this exemplary woman, see the account of the Toll House or Prison,—the scene of her labours.

son, and again in 1840, by Gray and Davison. It now contains 2133 pipes. An effective male choir is maintained by the voluntary contributions of the parishioners. To remedy the inconvenience of having to pass outside the church to enter the chancel to receive the Holy Eucharist, a communion table has been erected under the central tower, and above it is a small copy of Rubens' large "Elevation of the Cross" which hangs in the north transept of Antwerp Cathedral, presented by Col. Mason, who is also the donor of the Lectern.

We will pass out at the principal entrance, the lofty south porch, which has recently been restored at the cost of a parishioner, with its arcade of Purbeck Marble; overhead is a small chamber or Parvise, with a window looking into the church, probably that described in the old books as "the chamber vestry of the sexton."* The chancel is entered by a door, broken through the wall, at the time it was occupied by the Independents. Its present desolate condition will enable us to judge, what must have been the mournful aspect of the entire fabric,† at the commencement of this century, when years of dirt, neglect, whitewash, and church-wardenism, had done their worst, and reduced the fabric to a mere shell, entirely stripped of every decoration and adornment. The barbarous mutilation of the chancel at the Reformation we have already described. To adapt it to the service of the Independents during the Commonwealth, it was bricked up as it now exists. The hideous mass of painted timber which occupies the site of the altar is a sample of the depraved ecclesiastical taste of the last century. Behind it are the remains of the reredos of fine perpendicular tabernacle work once filled with figures

* In 1540, it was agreed by the corporation, that "Richard Hampson, beyng a servante, or under-sexton, in the churche of Yarmouth, should have the chamber over the church porche, frely to his owne use, for his chamber to lodge in, so longe as the assent of the comon assemblee or counsel should deem it mete and convenient." In 1576, the corporation ordered "the chamber over the christening door to be made to keep the records in."

† A series of views, published by J. P. Neale, in 1825, illustrate the extraordinary choking up of the interior, with huge pews, and cumbrous galleries.

of the apostles and saints. The sedilia on the south side of this middle chancel, are very richly canopied. On the north side is an arcade with a doorway which formerly led to a place of penance, lighted with a slit, from which the high altar alone could be seen. The doorways at each end of the stone reredos led to a vestry for the attendant priests, destroyed by the fall of the east end of the church. Altars stood at the east ends of both the chancel aisles. The piscina and fine sedilia of that in the south aisle still remain, with vestiges of the original colouring. In the walls are apertures formerly used as Aumbrys, lockers, or cupboards, to contain the chalices and altar furniture. The stone stairs which led to the Rood Loft remain. On the walls of the church, as appear to have been common in the district, were formerly many rude fresco paintings, which from time to time, as the whitewash peels off, come to light; within the last few years a fine painting has been uncovered on the north chancel wall, representing two female figures, and a group of knights in chain armour.

The pavement of the chancel is composed of flat monumental black marble slabs, with deeply cut armorial shields, an arrangement borrowed from their Dutch neighbours, in whose large churches these pavements form a marked and prevalent feature. Here lie interred the old families of Yarmouth; many of whose hatchments are fixed upon the walls. To the genealogist and the antiquarian, the value of these memorials must be very great. Their epitaphs are given in full in the pages of Blomefield and Swindon, and they have furnished the materials for an interesting volume by the late Mr. Dawson Turner.—*Sepulchral Reminiscences of a Market Town*. A number of the inscriptions he records, had perished, though fortunately, not before they had been copied by Le Neve, Gough, and other antiquaries.

We have already noticed the visit to Yarmouth, of *Weever*, and his sad record—that “all the funeral

monuments in this church are utterly defaced; neither inscription nor epitaph now remaining." After the chancel had been bricked up, it seems to have been specially used as a place of sepulture for the principal families of the town, during the two centuries that followed the civil wars. And here will be found ample food for those who love to moralize on the transitory nature of earthly greatness. Of the old families—the magnates and rulers of Yarmouth—the names of Bendish, Burton, Bridges, Carter, Cooper, England, Fuller, Gooch, Owner, Medowe, and others,—all have either disappeared from the face of the earth, or sunk into obscurity.* Here are buried the father and mother of Sir Astley Cooper,—the Rev. Samuel Cooper, eighteen years minister of Yarmouth, and Maria Susanna Bransby, his wife, both authors of many publications now forgotten.† Several of the celebrities buried here, we shall have occasion to notice as we proceed.

The sacrilegious appropriation of old grave stones for modern inscriptions has prevailed in this church down

* The earliest monumental inscription now remaining in this church, is that to the memory of John Couldham, 1620, in the chancel middle aisle. The oldest tablet, is "HANNA DASSETT, VIRGO, 1637." The number of flat stones, is over 450, of which 200 are in the chancel. There are also about 50 tablets and memorial monuments, some of great interest.

"Among other monuments in St. Nicholas is one to Amelia Darke. The warm expressions of eulogy in the epitaph of this lady,—itself an elegant composition, may naturally lead to an inquiry who she was. It records inter alia, that "to an excellent understanding she added the pleasing manners of a gentlewoman, with the charity of a christian. Her situation introduced her to the great; whose intercourse she cultivated, not from vanity, but that she might through them promote the favourite object of her life, to administer comfort to the destitute." It concludes by saying, what I believe was quite true, that "she was beloved by the poor, esteemed by her friends, and respected by all who had the pleasure of knowing her."

After this it may cause some surprise to be told that she was the landlady of the Angel Inn. The epitaph was written by probably the most able pen ever known in Yarmouth, that of James Sayers, and he also wrote upon her the following epigram still better known in its day;—

"At the Angel at Yarmouth, a singular Inn,
There's the shadow without, and the substance within;
This paradox proving, in punning's despite,
That an ANGEL, THO' DARK, is an Angel of light."

TURNER'S SEPULCHREAL REMINISCENCES.

† Sir Astley's professional studies commenced at Yarmouth in the surgery of Mr. Francis Turner. See Appendix for a further notice of the Cooper family.

to a very recent period. The monument of Robert Crowmer, seven times bailiff of Yarmouth, 1470—97, was plundered of its sculptured shields by the churchwardens and bailiffs, 1650, to commemorate their construction of a large vestry in the north chancel. Curiously enough the slabs with coat of arms, of one of these purloiners, bailiff "Felstead," in the north aisle, was subsequently appropriated by another family, with an unceremoniousness equal to his own.* The grave of Edward Owner, many times bailiff and member of Parliament, one of the town's greatest benefactors, was opened, his bones scattered, and his tombstone defaced for the benefit of another person, in 1823. The slab of John Carter, also one of the town's chiefest worthies, with its remarkable inscription, has disappeared. In 1796, the churchwardens of St Nicholas sold old gravestones for £38, and a "stone figure" for 2s. 6d.†

In walking round the church it is not difficult to trace its successive periods of construction. The tower is early English, carried on fine and lofty arches, with good mouldings. The windows in the tower are Norman. The nave is pronounced by Mr. Petrie to be the earliest pointed architecture he is acquainted with. The aisles, as we have already noticed, are much wider than the nave. On both sides of the nave the original corbel tables are seen under the present roof of the aisles, proving the original aisles to have been much narrower, and with lean-to roofs below these corbels. The west window of the nave has a fine early English lancet triplet, those of the aisles are larger triplets, with transition work. The transept arches to the

* The tomb of the other Bailiff, William Burton, has been preserved from the like retributive justice, by its epitaph,—

"He liv'd to Christ, He dy'd in Christ, and must
Appere with Christ! Disturb not then his dust,"

† "In the Navy the stones used with sand, for rubbing and scouring the decks, are called HOLY STONES. The name is said to have been assigned many years ago, when a large supply of those articles was received on board the Channel Fleet, of which a great proportion was found to consist of broken tombstones."—NOTE BY ADMIRAL SMYTH.

aisles are early English of extraordinary span, and great beauty. The north windows of the chancel are early decorated of the time of Edward I, and have been restored, together with the arcade on the north side, by the Dean and Chapter of Norwich. The great east window of the chancel south aisle, and the south windows of the same, are perpendicular. The east window of the north chancel aisle is a poor insertion; its original size may be traced by the dripstone. Before the fall, in 1784, of the east end of the middle chancel aisle, when it was shortened 10 feet, and patched up,—this must have formed of itself a chancel of respectable dimensions. It had three windows on each side, and a large one probably a triplet, at the extreme east. Those in the north and south aisles of the church, are of the transition style from decorated to perpendicular. The gable of the north transept was rebuilt during the last restoration, and its large window is from the architect's design.

On the south transept was once an ancient clock with chimes, which played every hour. At the side of this clock was the figure of a man in armour, holding a hammer, with which he struck the hours and quarters. It was removed in 1787. The figure of "Jack smite the Bell," was not uncommon in the churches of this district. One may be seen over the vestry of Southwold church. The present peal of 10 bells was put up in 1807, at a cost of £1,200. The tenor weighs 30 cwt.

The churchyard of St. Nicholas, is one of the oldest and largest in the kingdom, exceeding eight acres in extent, exclusive of the new cemetery adjacent, of 11 acres. In 1285, when the walls of the town were commenced, their eastern and northern limits were drawn round the churchyard, and the massive remains still form part of its north boundary. It has been frequently enlarged. From the west, the most ancient portion, the great number of upright stones, numbering with breast stones, upwards of

6000* have a most striking and impressive effect. The unsightly practice of displacing the green sod, by coffin shaped pavements of round flints and cadaver flat stones, is a great disfigurement of this churchyard. The remark of Camden, that "epitaphs should be peculiarly respected; for in them love is shewn to the deceased, memory is continued to posterity, friends are comforted, and the reader is put in mind of human frailty;" is one that commends itself to all men. Unhappily, nowhere is to be found such trivial common-place, or such wretched bad taste as in the great majority of modern epitaphs. Many a profitless hour has been passed in our churchyards, in quest of inscriptions whose appropriate beauty, or quaint devoutness, would repay the search, and harmonize with those meditations on death and eternity; which the grave should summon up.† We cannot promise

* Large as is this number, they are almost all comparatively modern. The gravestones in our populous churchyards have but a short-liv'd existence. Few long survive the pious hands that reared them, and from time to time wiped off the cankering mosses which blurred and choked up their inscriptions. The living do not merely step into dead men's shoes,—pass but a few years,—and they have elbowed them out of their very graves; and so from age to age the world runs on. The accidents of time, and far more, the selfish cravings of humanity, each crying out in turn for a perpetuating record of his own common-place existence, and each selfishly blotting out the remembrance of past generations to give place to his own, continue with certain precision to thin the memorials of the dead. By the time the family portrait has gone through its successive pilgrim ages, from the front room to the back, then upwards to the bedrooms, and still ~~EXCELSION~~ to the garret, until at last it flaps out the last stage of its existence at the broker's door; where it is offered, "cheap as dirt, Sir, less than the value of the frame," and the canvas is cut out, and replaced by another face of foolish, simpering, self-praise, to run its round of the same dreary iteration;—by that time, the visitant to the dead man's grave, will perchance find that his epitaph, nay, his very bones, have been thought less than the value of their frames. Surely, it was no vain forethought which prompted the great poet of all time, he, who, of all mortal men has best unfolded through every winding turn, the feelings of our poor weak human nature—to have engraven on his tomb the homely but pathetic appeal;—

"Good friend, FOR JESUS' SAKE, forbear
To dig the dead enclosed here;
Blest be the man that spares the stones,
And CURST be he that moves my bones."

So the poet, Spenser, in his FAIRY QUEEN cries out,—

"O dearest God! me grant, I dead be not defouled."

† The only reflection, called forth by a visit to Yarmouth churchyard by the writer of the NORFOLK TOUR 1795, is a somewhat unsatisfactory one. "We cannot but regret that we become acquainted with many virtues, only when it is too late to enjoy them, and are introduced to excellent parents, husbands, children and friends, but to lament their departure, and bewail their loss." He must have shared in the perplexity of the poet Wordsworth, whose eurlosity was roused on a similar occasion, to learn "where all the BAD people were buried."

our readers will be more fortunate here than elsewhere ; of the many hundred stones hardly a score will arrest his attention. Like other sea side graveyards, it contains numerous memorials of those whom the great deep has swallowed up. We subjoin the most noticeable.

"Boast not of to-morrow, for thou knowest not what a day may bring forth.

In memory of

JOHN CUTLER	} aged { 29	} Years,
THOMAS FOSTER		
RICHARD BARRETT		

late belonging to His Majesty's sloop, the Fly, who were drowned on coming for the beech, the 15th day of February, 1780 :

When the brave tar who furls aloft the sail,
Escapes from peril and survives the gale,
How hard his fate, a thousand dangers past,
When near the friendly land to breathe his last—
Tho' rescued oft' from threat'ning seas, one wave
Upsets the boat and sends him to his grave.
Stranger! should chance direct thy footsteps here,
Cans't thou refrain to shed a gen'rous tear!
Cans't thou, now Britain on her sons must call,
Without emotion see one sailor fall.
Parading armies still may awe the land,
But England's safety on her fleet depends,"

To a Sailor.

"Though Boreas blow, and Neptune's waves
Have toss'd me to and fro ;
By God's decree, you plainly see,
I'm harbour'd here below :

Where I must at anchor lie,
With many of our fleet ;
But once again we shall set sail,
Our Admiral CHRIST to meet."*

"To the memory of DAVID BARTLEMAN, master of the brig Alexander and Margaret, of North Shields, who, on the 31st of January, 1781, on the Norfolk coast, with only three three-pounders and ten men and boys, nobly defended himself against a cutter,

* This appears on an older stone at Lowestoft, also at Ware. In most sea side churchyards, it furnishes the theme for numberless variations, and with "afflictions sore," "farewell vain world," "a loving husband and a friend sincere" forms the mouldy stock in trade of the parish clerk and gravestone cutter.

carrying eighteen four-pounders and upwards of one hundred men, commanded by the notorious English pirate, FALL, and fairly beat him off. Two hours after, the enemy came down upon him again; when, totally dismasted, his mate, DANIEL MAC AULEY, expiring with the loss of blood, and himself dangerously wounded, he was obliged to strike and ransom. He brought his shattered vessel into Yarmouth with more than the honours of a conqueror, and died here in consequence of his wounds on the 14th of February following, in the twenty-fifth year of his age. To commemorate the gallantry of his son, the bravery of his faithful men, and at the same time mark the infamy of a savage pirate, his afflicted father, ALEXANDER BARTLEMAN, has ordered this stone to be erected over his honourable grave.

'Twas great!———

His foe though strong was infamous:
The foe of human kind!
A manly indignation fir'd his breast.
Thank God! MY SON has done his duty"

CATO.

"Here rest the remains of GEORGE PARDALL, a native of Rhodes, who died in Yarmouth, January 8th, 1818, aged thirty-two years:

Early he left his native shore,
O'er many a land to roam.
And enter'd to return no more
A foreign master's home.

The parents, friends that lov'd him most,
Caught not his latest breath,
But pity fill'd affection's post,
And smooth'd his bed of death.

What recks it where his ashes bide,
He who his soul receiv'd,
Enquires not where the wanderer died,
But how the Christian liv'd?

In the Town Library, is deposited a curious monument of mis-directed ability; a neatly executed M.S. in several folio volumes, of all the inscriptions in this churchyard, with notes and annotations, compiled during the years 1830—4, by John Fletcher Cooper, by turns lawyer's clerk, schoolmaster, and astrologer. He describes himself as a son of science, and searcher of the stars. A disciple, who has added a biography to the manuscript, has drawn an unflattering likeness of the sage, whose strongest predilection, he asserts, was for searching the contents of the porter-butt. From the notes Cooper has attached to many of the inscriptions, we extract the following.—

On a flat stone, midway between the north transept and the old wall, is an epitaph now nearly obliterated:—"In memory of Mary, daughter of that cruel father, Mr. Thomas Osborn, grandchild of that worthy gentleman, Major Thaxton, widow of George Ward, the loving and tender wife of Robert Harnard, obiit, July 14, 1728, aged 50 years. Also Mary, daughter of the above Mary and Robert Harnard, obiit, November 24, 1721, aged 4 years, 5 months. Also, the remains of Robert Harnard, the loving husband of the above Mary Harnard, who departed this life, 14th June, 1747, aged 66.

Note by Cooper. "On the solemnization of the marriage of Mary with George Ward, as they were returning by the South Porch of the Church, a press-gang who had been ordered by the father of Mary, pressed the husband, and sent him off to sea, and Mary never saw him more."

The oldest man lying in the old yard in the North East part, with a breast stone, is Matthew Champion, 1794, aged 111 years.

In 1827, the town was thrown into violent commotion by the discovery that body snatching had been carried on for some time. Ten bodies were found to have been abstracted by a Resurrectionist named Vaughan,* who was apprehended, tried, and imprisoned.

On the South side of the chancel stands

The Priory.

At the time of the Reformation, Norfolk possessed no fewer than 123 monastic foundations, abbeys, priories, nunneries, colleges, and hospitals, many of them richly endowed. An account will be found in the pages of Manship, of those anciently existing in Yarmouth; our space compels us to abridge it.—

"After the building of St. Nicholas, eight other religious houses were builded in Yarmouth aforesaid; viz:—a house of Black Fryars, called the Predicant, or Preaching Fryars, situated in the south end of that town, in the reign of King Henry III, * * * one other of Grey Fryars commonly called the Minorites situate in the middle part of that town,† in the days of King Edward,

* A notice of this wretch will be found in the *LIFE OF SIR ASTLEY COOPER*.

† This division of Yarmouth into districts, was in accordance with the custom of the monastic orders, whose practice was to divide the towns in which they settled into four parts, appointed in the following order, Dominicans, Franciscans, Carmelites, and Augustines. The Augustines had a spacious Priory in Southtown, on the verge of the Gorleston boundary, with a cell in Yarmouth, some remains of which exist in Howard Street. The adjoining row is still called Austen Row, corrupted into Ostend Row.

the second of that name was builded, * * * and one other of the White Fryars, seated in the north end of the said town—commonly called the Carmelites*—built in the days of Edward III, * * * a Priory situate near the church, belonging to the Dean and Chapter of Norwich, and now in the occupation of their farmer, * * * a carnary, or charnel house, built in the churchyard of St. Nicholas, which, in the year 1308 was fully finished by one, Sybilla Flath, a widow of this township, to contain the boxes of the dead then formerly buried, and again cast up, by the making of new graves for the interment of others. Over which she built a proper neat chapel, wherein divine service was, by two priests for that purpose by her appointed, solemnly performed; endowing the same with revenues competent. But the same charnel long since decayed, and was in the year of our Lord 1588, by the town pulled down to the ground, and the bones therein being were buried under the east wall of the churchyard.

* * * There was moreover one Hospital, newly erected in that place where one formerly was built, and then wholly ruined. Wherein were of long time placed eight men and eight women, with a Custos or Guard over them, with a comely chapel to say Divine Service in, built in the midst between the said brothers and sisters * * * the same Hospital ground did extend itself from the Pudding Gate on the north, unto the gates commonly called the Market Gates on the south.† * * * There is also another Hospital, or Lazar House, (for so they used to term folk infected with the Elephantasy or Leprosy, because the skin of lepers be like to that of Elephants,) many hundred years past built by the town for diseased persons, situate not half a furlong distant from the north gates of Yarmouth, wherein be many poor people continually relieved and maintained.”‡

* Of the house of the White Friars, built according to the best authorities in the reign of Edward I, all traces have disappeared. Their possessions are supposed to have extended from the Market place, and Church Plain, westwards to the North Quay; a part of which was anciently called White Friars Quay. In 1509, the Convent was destroyed by fire, a misfortune attributed by Leland, to a defective supply of water.

† The Hospital mentioned by Manship, was founded by Thomas Fastolf, TEMP. Edward I, dedicated to the Blessed Virgin. It stood near the Church, on the site of the present Children's Hospital, and as we have recorded, was floeced when the funds were raised for making the sixth haven. Its buildings were turned to a variety of useful purposes by the Corporation, for Schools, Bridewell, Armory, &c.

‡ Of Lazar houses, for those afflicted with the disgusting and infectious disease of leprosy, introduced by the Crusaders from the East, there were two as Manship describes near the North Gate. In 1530, a Custos of the 'sick-man's houses' was appointed by the Corporation; a chapel was attached to them. In 1637, during the plague, they were set apart for its victims. In 1847, the Corporation granted the pest house as a site for a Ragged School, now used by the Town Mission. There was a Lazar house at Gorleston, still called Hospital yard. Ampler details of the religious houses of Yarmouth, will be found in Mr. Palmer's Notes to Manship.

Of the Religious Houses thus named by Manship, the only one now standing is the Priory, which owes its preservation to its connection with the adjoining church. The destruction of the conventual buildings and their churches in Yarmouth, was in most instances so thorough, that the traces of them in the present day are but faint and few. What fragmentary vestiges remain of the Dominicans, Franciscans, and Augustines, we will notice as we come upon them in the course of our itinerary.

The Church of St. Nicholas was attached by its founder Herbert de Losinga to the Benedictine Priory of Holy Trinity, Norwich, who thereupon established a cell at Yarmouth, and supplied chaplains to serve the church. In 1260, the temporalities of the church were confined to the Prior and Monks residing at Yarmouth. At this time the Priory was probably enlarged, and the Hall which still remains was erected; Cloisters were added running to the chancel of St. Nicholas. Numerous bequests and endowments were made to it by the inhabitants. Yarmouth wills were proved here before the Dean, who also held a consistory court. The Borough Rolls contain numerous records of the fines inflicted on the clergy for levying illegal and extortionate fees, and for their lewd and irregular lives.* At the Reformation the revenues of the church were leased to a *Farmer* of church property for 80 years, reserving an annual rent to the Dean and Chapter of Norwich, to whom the priory of Holy Trinity with its revenues had been transferred. These last feeling no interest in the priory, and the Corporation possessing no property in it—the buildings gradually fell to ruin. Some were demolished, others turned into stables. The great Hall was converted into stables, with hay lofts running overhead. In 1845, during the movement started for restoring the Parish Church, attention was drawn to these neglected buildings, and after various difficulties had been over-

* See appendix.

come, the fine old Hall was restored and fitted up as a National School. A Library and Museum designed by Mr. J. H. Hakewill, to harmonize with the ancient structure, were added, and the Court yard cleared out and re-paved. The Great Hall is used as a boys' school and as a lecture room: and school rooms have been erected for girls and infants. These schools will accomodate 750 children: they were opened in 1852, and are well supported and conducted.

Notes on the Ecclesiastical History of Yarmouth.

"Not anywhere is the word severelier practised, the preacher reverentlier observed and honoured, justice soundlier ministered, and a warlike people peaceablier demeanoured, betwixt this and the Grand Cathay, and the strand of Prester John."—NASH'S LENTEN STUFF.

Yarmouth, from its local situation, was a resort of the Refugees from the religious persecutions of the continent, and from the Low Countries especially. The teachings of the Reformers found early acceptance here, and the records of the town tell of tumultuous interruptions of the Romish service in St. Nicholas' Church * At the Reformation, the patronage of Yarmouth Church and Priory was vested in a newly constituted body,—the Dean and Chapter of Norwich. During the brief reign of Queen Mary, the mass was reverted to. The revenues were farmed out by the Dean and Chapter, the farmer paying the most moderate stipend possible to the officiating minister, and receiving in return the most moderate amount of duty; a discreditable arrangement which for many years led to constant disputes and controversies between the chapter and the corporation of the town, who displayed uniformly throughout a persistent anxiety to obtain the appointment of the minister into their own hands. Defeated in this, they engaged preachers or lecturers at their own expense. Frequent deputations were sent to Cambridge to engage preachers, whose gifts, voice, and learning, might prove acceptable to the towns-folk. The refusal of the Bishops of Norwich to license these lecturers, caused many altercations. In 1573, a Mr. Harvey, the minister for the time being, was engaged by the corporation as preacher, at a salary

* In 1536, a riot occurred in the church, when Dominus Robert Cotton, a priest, was preaching; twenty-four persons, headed by one of the Chaplains, denounced the prevailing practices, asserting that "no honour should be given to saints, or to pictures and images of them within the church, by lights and such lyke thynges; that a christen man profitted nothyng by makynge of intercessions and preyers to the seyntes of heaven to be mediators and meanes for him to Almighty God. And that also our Lady is not in hevyn. And that all holy water is good sawce for a capon, and other such lyke sayngs."

of £40. For this addition to his stipend he was required by the corporation to read prayers daily from All Hallows to Candlemas, at five o'clock in the morning, and for the rest of the year at six o'clock. Lights were provided in the church at these early hours. Later, in the 16th century, it seems the corporation had permission to nominate such ministers as were agreeable to them, on relieving the farmers of the living of the cost of maintaining them.

Previous to the Reformation, a custom had arisen of a public breakfast being provided by the Prior and Monks on Christmas-day for the townsmen. This was now resisted by Mr. Gostling the farmer of the church property. The reasons he alledged—disclose a strange picture of the times. I. It led to a gathering of at least one thousand of the basest and rudest sort, who by quarrelling and fighting among themselves, with breaking of windows, tables, stools, pots, and glasses, occasion danger of murder, and many other disorders. II. The profanation of the birth-day of Christ; the Holy Communion being always put by, the greatest part of the people drinking and swaggering until 11 o'clock, and going neither to service nor sermon. The corporation sought to enforce the continuance of the old usage, but the Privy Council before whom it was brought in 1614, very properly commuted it into an annual payment to the town.

The continued litigation between the corporation and the Dean and Chapter of Norwich, bred much discontent and religious ill-will in Yarmouth during the reign of Queen Elizabeth, who curbed the reforming party with a strong and resolute hand. On the accession of the Stuarts, it broke out, and throughout the troubled half century which followed,—Yarmouth convulsed with angry factions by turn struggling for the supremacy in the great civil and religious contentions of that age,—presented a faithful epitome of the kingdom at large. Numerous valuable documents, illustrating this momentous period, will be found in the bulky volume of *Swinden*, and *Mr. Palmer* has devoted to it many of the most interesting pages of his *History of Great Yarmouth*. The town viewed with growing impatience the right of interference possessed by the Bishops of Norwich, and their veto on the nomination of the ministers of Yarmouth,—which was now frequently exercised. During the reign of Charles I the Bishops chosen to fill the See were after the model of Archbishop Laud, and Wren and his successor Montague were notoriously hostile to the Puritans.*

* The Archbishop of Canterbury supported the Chapter in the High Commission Courts, declaring the town unfit to have the appointment of ministers, "in regard that diverse of that town have continual intercourse with those of Amsterdam, and sundry schismatical books have thither been imported, and diverse of the said town have been favourers and maintainers of unconformable ministers, and of late have had sundry conventicles there."—*SWINDEN*.

The nomination by the corporation of the Rev. John Brinsley, a famous Puritan divine, was the occasion of prolonged and bitter disputations. Rejected by the Chapter as minister, he was later permitted to officiate as lecturer.* He soon came into collision with the Rev. Matthew Brookes, the church minister. Proceedings were taken against him in Chancery for causing a disturbance in the church, by going up into the pulpit before the prayers had ended—and for other matters. The corporation supported him, declaring themselves “very much traduced and abused.” Brinsley was served in church by Brookes, with an inhibition to preach from the Archbishop, whereon four of the magistrates, Brinsley’s friends, Miles Corbet, being one, committed Brookes to gaol for ‘a disturbance.’ A Chancery commission failed to settle the quarrel and an order was thereon sent from the King for the imprisonment of the four magistrates during His Majesty’s pleasure, for the wrong done to Mr. Brookes. Brinsley was also ordered to be dismissed. The tables thus turned, *peccavimus* was very humbly sung to His Majesty in a petition presented by Ezech Harris, and Miles Corbet, in their own name and that of the corporation,† which being considered in Council, the parties imprisoned were ordered to be set at liberty.

When the civil wars had fairly commenced, the minister of Yarmouth, Brookes, who had been “zealous for the constitution in church and state” was made to feel the hatred of his enemies. He was utterly “disowned, harrassed, and abused,” and finally obliged to fly for his life.‡ The Presbyterian party in Yarmouth had now got the upper hand, and maintained it for a time. Brinsley was recalled, and William Bridge|| and John Allen, eminent divines of

* The letter of Bishop White, granting the town’s request, is printed by Swinden, and fully bears out the character of this prelate, as one eminently mild, pious, and charitable.

† “Having by your Majesty’s most princely, patient and just proceedings in the hearing of the cause, more fully understood our errors and offence, being heartily sorry, acknowledging the same, we in all humility submit ourselves to the justice of the sentence, and crave your Majesty’s pardon for what is past, and faithfully promise hereafter to be careful to avoid all just cause of complaint, and to carry ourselves peaceably and conformably to your Majesty’s ecclesiastical and temporal laws. We therefore humbly beseech your Majesty to grant us a gracious remission, and to set us at liberty, that at this holy time (Lent) we may with our neighbours partake both of God’s mercies and your Majesty’s.”—SWINDEN.

‡ Brookes had made himself specially obnoxious to the corporation by refusing to admit strangers into his pulpit, and by insisting on naming the parish clerk. He retired to Lowestoft, but his troubles were not over, for on the occasion of Cromwell’s sudden descent on that place in 1642, we read that Brookes “escaped over the river.”

|| The Rev. William Bridge, was in 1631, lecturer at Colchester, and in 1633, at St. George’s Tombland, Norwich, where he also was rector of St. Peter’s Hungate. Whilst at Yarmouth, he was a leading member of the Westminster Assembly of Divines. In 1662, he was ejected by the act of uniformity, and died at Stepney, 1670, aged 70. Laud wrote to Charles I., “he has left two livings and a lectureship, and has fled to Holland,” on which the King wrote against his name “we are well rid of him.”

the diocese, who had retired to Holland to avoid the harsh proceedings of Bishop Wren, were invited to Yarmouth and accepted the call. Next ensued a struggle between the Presbyterians, and the Independents for the mastery. Bridge sought to form a separate Independent church. This, the corporation who would allow of no public exercise of religion in private houses, nor of any 'particular churches,' would not permit. It was determined that all public worship should be at the Parish Church only. The strife between the sects continued, until after the King's execution, the Independents obtained the chancel for their exclusive service, Bridge and Tookie officiating as their ministers.

Considerable obscurity hangs over the relative position of the Episcopalians and Presbyterians during the Commonwealth, and the precise nature of the services carried on in the body of the church.* Brinsley and Allen were both ordained clergymen of the Church of England, and good and sincere men. The current tradition in Yarmouth, is, that the Presbyterians attached themselves to Brinsley,—the Episcopalians to Allen. They were styled the ministers of the parochial congregation. Possibly a mutual resistance to the growing power of the Independents, during Cromwell's rule,† drew the other two religious bodies together. That the Episcopal services were not suppressed seems clear; for at the Restoration, when the Royalists were supreme, the corporation sought to retain Brinsley and Allen as ministers of the church. The Dean and Chapter however insisted on enforcing their right, and Allen was dismissed;‡ Brinsley continuing as Incumbent of the parish, until silenced two years later by

* It has been supposed that three distinct services were carried on in St. Nicholas' during the Commonwealth, and that the north aisle was walled off for one of the congregations. This last assertion is an error. The north aisle may have been used by the Presbyterians, for Edward Owner, their leader, is mentioned as one of the elders of the church house, erected in the North Aisle of St. Nicholas', where he was buried. It was never however walled up as was done with the chancel. There is some confusion about the chancels, for in former times the north aisle was called (very improperly) the old chancel, or the north chancel. We read of church meetings held in the Priory, in 1650.

† How far the Independents in their brief day of power understood and practised the principles of civil and religious liberty, is illustrated in the following extracts. Thomas Bond, a Quaker, in 1655, went into the "Independent meeting, in Great Yarmouth, and, after their teacher had done, spake to the people, till one of their elders (called a deacon), violently thrust him down over a high seat,—to the endangering of his life,—and hal'd him out into the yard, where he would have spoken to the people; but was there taken, and sent to prison, where he lay among felons; and the gaoler would seldom suffer any Friend to visit or relieve him." And the Independents made the following entry in their annals, under date the 28th of December, 1659,—“It is our desire that no countenance be given unto, nor trust reposed in the hands of Quakers, they being persons of such principles as are destructive to the gospel, and inconsistent with the peace of civil societies.”

‡ The Rev. John Allen, after his dismissal, removed to Gorleston, and died of the plague in 1664.

the Act of Uniformity.* The Independents were ejected from the chancel. In the letters of *Sir Thomas Browne*, the famous physician of Norwich, (1661,) we have a glimpse of the cooling down of the religious distractions of Yarmouth. "Yesterday the Dean preached and read the Liturgie or Common Prayer, and had a communion at Yarmouth, as haveing a right to doe so some times, both at St. Mary's the great church at Lynn, and at St. Nicholas' Church at Yarmouth, as he is Dean. It is thought by degrees most will come to conformitie. Lent was observed this year, which made Yarmouth and fishermen rejoyce."

During the century which followed the Restoration, the corporation continued with unwearied pertinacity to urge their right of appointing ministers. Their claim was just as firmly resisted by the Dean and Chapter of Norwich. They appeased the controversy by granting from time to time leases to the corporation, who throughout, issued their regulations to the successive ministers, for the clerical duties of the parish, the sermons, services, &c., and to the churchwardens for alterations or repairs of St. Nicholas, without any reference to ecclesiastical authority,—down to the commencement of this century.†

In 1712, a chapel of ease, was commenced in the south part of the town,—the present St. George's Chapel "erected by the corporation at a cost of £3,800. For upwards of a century the living of St. Nicholas has been favoured with a succession of able ministers. In 1751, the Rev. John Butler, D.D., (afterwards Bishop of Oxford and Hereford,) was appointed to the living, and during his ten years residence won the general esteem. In 1781, the Rev. Dr. Cooper, (father of Sir Astley Cooper,) was appointed, and held the living for 18 years. In 1835, the Hon. and Rev. E. Pellew, (son of Admiral Lord Exmouth,) became the Incumbent. On leaving in 1844, he received a testimonial from his parishioners,

* The Rev. John Brinsley was a native of Ashby de la Zouch, educated at Emanuel College, Cambridge. His mother was sister to Bishop Hall, of Norwich, whom he accompanied to the Synod of Dort. On his expulsion from Yarmouth, in 1632, Sir John Wentworth, of Somerleyton, a staunch Royalist, got him the cure of that parish. He was a voluminous writer of Puritan divinity. He died 1664, aged 64, and is buried in the chancel of St. Nicholas.

† From time immemorial till 1835, the corporation annually appointed two churchwardens out of their own body. How they acquired this right it is impossible to say. They still appoint the PARISH CLERK and sexton, and provide the former with a house. Consequently the Parish Clerk was considered as entitled to partake in the "feasts" given by the corporation; and was always honoured with a card of invitation to "the Mayor's Feast" on Michaelmas day. The last of this class of clerks was Mr. David Absolon. It was then customary for the clerk to give out the psalms to be sung, and to recite the first verse as is now done by the officiating minister. On one occasion the Mayor elect had omitted to send a card to the clerk, who on the following Sunday reminded him of such remissness, by giving out the following verse—directing his voice at the same time to the Mayor elect.

"Let David his accustomed place
In thy remembrance find."

from the inhabitants, and from the non-conformist ministers, in grateful acknowledgment of his conduct as a christian minister. He was succeeded by the Rev. H. Mackenzie, a clergyman, who also endeared himself to the town, and to whose exertions the partial restoration of the church and the origination of its large and flourishing National Schools are due. On his resignation in 1848, a successor of equal zeal and estimation was found, in the Rev. George Hills; the recently appointed Bishop of Columbia. His labours have been followed up with unwearied zeal and energy by the present incumbent, the Rev. H. R. Nevill. Aided by colleagues working in the same spirit, it is a matter of thankfulness that in few places is the Church carrying on a nobler or more increasingly successful mission, than in Great Yarmouth. Six curates are attached to the Parish Church, which enjoys the honourable reputation of furnishing a valuable training school for the multifarious and solemn duties of the christian ministry.

Notes on the Municipality of Yarmouth.

"Here could I break out into a boundless race of oratory, in shrill trumpeting, and in concelebrating the royal magnificence of her government, that for state and strict civil ordering, scarcely admitteth any rivals. But I fear it would be a theme displeasing to the grave modesty of the discreet present magistrates, and therefore, consultively I overslip it."—NASH'S LENTEN STUFF, 1599.

"It is a very well governed Town; and I have nowhere in England observed the SABBATH-DAY so exactly kept, or the breach of it so constantly punished, as in this place, which I mention to their honour."—TOUR THROUGH GREAT BRITAIN, 1702.

At the right hand leading out of the churchyard, within the enclosure of the present railings, formerly stood *the Guildhall*. In Manship's day he describes it as a "fair building, 76 feet by 22 feet, which being much ruined, was substantially repaired in 1544, and a very fair roof, which belonged to Mettingham College before its suppression, was placed on the said Hall. "In this Hall, within my remembrance," he adds, "was yearly holden on Trinity Sunday, a solemn feast for the whole brotherhood and fellowship of the society, called the Blessed Trinity, which by our first charter of King John, anno 1207, was granted unto us by the name of the Merchants' Guild."*

* Concerning the manner whereof, I find it recorded in the book of the Assemblies.—"IMPRIMIS, that every brother of the house should, on the vigil or eve of the Blessed Trinity, be present in the church to hear divine service, and should pay for him and his wife two shillings and eightpence towards the charges of the feast, whether he came or came not. And every brother and sister extraordinary coming thither, to pay twelvence a-piece, and so every other person the like. The diet whereof to be as followeth,—at their coming to church on the even aforesaid, competency of spice cakes, beer, and ale, to be provided for them: upon the day at dinner, the first course to be frumenty, roast beef, green geese, and veal; the second course to

Many Guilds (from *ghulden* or *ghilden* to pay) or Societies for the promotion of trade, commerce, and religious purposes, were in existence from an early period in Yarmouth. Most of them had chapels in St. Nicholas Church, and were possessed of lands, goods, plate, and other property, and like the provident societies of the present day, marched in public processions on particular occasions. The Guild of the Holy Trinity or Merchants' Guild, which formed the Corporation or governing body of the town, was by far the most important. At the dissolution of the religious orders in 1545, their property was confiscated and applied to the public use of the town. The name of the Merchant's Guild merged into that of Corporation, and by that name it continues to administer the municipal affairs of the Borough. "In its Guildhall" writes Manship, "be all their common councils holden, whether it be for the election of their yearly magistrates and officers, or for the making of laws and constitutions."

The local government of Yarmouth in the Anglo Saxon period, was probably by Port Reves elected by the town, whose duties embraced the collecting of the royal customs. After the conquest, these officers were nominated by the Crown, and usually called bailiffs. These were replaced in the reign of Henry I, by a Provost, who acted as revenue officer and magistrate. When the town obtained its freedom from John, by payment of a fee farm rent, the Merchants' Guild granted by his charter, may be said to have substantially created Yarmouth a borough, and its members were the burgesses. The town reverted to the rule of bailiff. Letters patent of Henry III, and Edward I, provided that to 'enforce and strengthen' the bailiffs, twenty-four 'wise men' of the town "should be chosen and sworn, who should at all times obey the bailiffs' summons. These wise men or jurats, were annually chosen, and elected the bailiffs, churchwardens, and other officers of the borough. Later, they were styled aldermen, Swinden has printed the code of laws and customs for the borough, compiled by these twenty-four jurats, in 1272, of 1st Edward I. It contains penalties for men going armed in time of peace,—for vagrancy,—assaulting and hurting "with weapons ground,"—merchants to pay for goods according to their bargains, disputes thereon to be settled by "four wise men of the town" chosen by the jurats, &c In 1388, 10 Richard II, an ordinance was made empowering the twenty-four jurats to chose "twenty-four other wyse men to have syght of merchandyse." This second body in course of time increased their numbers, and were styled common council-men. Thus by degrees the corporation of Yarmouth was built up. By its old code of laws, as also by its charters a *burgh*

be capon, pig, lamb, and custard: at supper, good broth with boiled meat, roast mutton, capon, lamb, and tart. At Monday dinner, fumenty, roasted beef, green geese, and lamb. Six persons were appointed to every mess; two green geese to a mess, and one capon to a mess."—*MANSHIP*.

court was to be holden before the bailiffs once a week, for the hearing of "all manner of pleas of land, debt, detinue, covenant broken, trespass, &c." A *foreign court* was also to be held for the speedy dispatch of merchants and other strangers coming into Yarmouth, for the recovery of debts, promises, bargains, and contracts. This old code, written in French and translated in 1491, concludes with this description of the common council, the governing body of the town. "In which common council consisteth the whole body and state of the whole corporation of the burgh, that is incorporated by the name of the bailiffs, burgesses, and commonalty of Great Yarmouth. The representation whereof is in the bailiffs, or one of them for the bailiffs; in the 24ties for the burgesses; and in the 48ties for the whole commonalty of the said town."

The charters under which the valuable privileges and immunities of the town were granted, and its local government defined from time to time, were numerous. First in antiquity as in importance, came its Magna Charta—the charter of King John, followed by those of Henry III and Edward I. We have already described these in the chapter on the early history of the town. By a charter of Henry VII, the Borough obtained the very rare privilege of a capital jurisdiction. This power of life and death was exercised until 1835, and many executions took place under its authority.*

A charter of Elizabeth severed the Borough from the jurisdiction of the Admiralty, and its bailiffs were empowered to hold a weekly court of admiralty, with other privileges which we have already described (see page 28). By a charter of James I, it was finally declared that the bailiffs, burgesses, and commonalty, should for ever be "one body corporate and politic," by the name of the bailiffs, aldermen, and burgesses of the borough of Great Yarmouth, by which name they might have perpetual succession, and be capable in law to purchase and hold real as well as personal property, and they might have for ever their "Ancient Common Seal," and that the election of all officers should be in the same manner, by the like means, at such times, as in the borough before time, had been accustomed. That there should be 24 "good and discreet men," who should be called aldermen of the common council, holding office during their life, and a recorder, a "discrete man learned in the law of England." The office of steward of the borough to cease. Previous charters were confirmed.† The first charter of Charles

* The last public execution was in 1813, when John Hannah, a wretched old man of 70, was hung on the North Denes, for the murder of his wife.

† In 1645, the Yarmouth corporation appear to have laboured under the delusion which consigned so many innocent persons to cruel deaths in this and the century preceding. In 1644, Hopkins, the witch-finder, had a commission from Parliament to make a circuit for the discovery of witches, and had 20s. allowed him from every town requiring his services. In the Assembly

II, 1664, declares the aldermen removable by the bailiffs, and a majority of aldermen and common council-men jointly. Forty eight common council-men are named to continue in office during such time and in such manner as heretofore. The third charter of Charles II, 1684, reduces the number of aldermen to 18, and common council-men to 36. Men purposely elected by the crown were nominated, also a high steward, a recorder, under steward, two coroners, two chamberlains, and a common clerk.* It was provided that *the mayor*, for the time being, and thenceforth for life, the high steward, recorder, under steward, and the three senior aldermen, should be the justices of the peace for the borough. A sword-bearer to the mayor was appointed. No non-conformist to be admitted to the liberties of the Borough. A clause was added giving full power and authority to the corporation, to nominate and elect burgesses to parliament.

The last charter of Yarmouth was granted by Queen Anne, in 1703. It limits the number of the corporation as prescribed by the third charter of Charles II, which in other respects is abrogated, and confirms the former privileges and charters of the borough.† Under the Municipal Corporations Act, the borough is divided into six wards, governed by a mayor, 12 aldermen, and 36 council men.

Book, August 15th, 1645, "it was agreed that the gentleman, Mr. Hopkins, employed in the country for discovering and finding out of witches, shall be sent for hither, to come to town to make search for such wicked persons, if any be here, and shall have his fee and such allowance for his paines and labour in that end, as he hath in other places in the country." Hopkins was too busy to bestow much time on it, and a staff of 4 females assistants as searchers and watchers were engaged at a salary of 12d. a day amongst them. The result of their labours was a presentment at the sessions on the 10th September of that year, of six widows and spinsters, for practising witchcraft and sorcery. They were all adjudged to be suspended by the neck, &c., until &c., which sentence was carried out, one only being respited. Hopkins boasted that he had caused sixteen to be slaughtered at Yarmouth; no records of this number are known to exist.

* The struggles of Charles II with the Whig Parliamentary leaders had commenced, and the object of this multiplication of offices, was to pack the municipalities with creatures and adherents of the king. To purge the corporation of all persons supposed to be disaffected to the crown, and to punish the Puritan party, quo warranto writs were issued to the boroughs, requiring the surrender of their charters: "the government proceeded to attack the constitutions of other corporations, which were governed by Whig officers, and which had been in the habit of returning Whig members to parliament. Borough after borough was compelled to surrender its privileges; and new charters were granted which gave the ascendancy everywhere to the Tories." —MACAULEY'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

† In this charter the government of the town by two bailiffs was finally done away with, and a mayor or chief magistrate substituted. Yarmouth appears originally to have been governed by four bailiffs elected yearly. There is an unbroken record of them from A. D. 1269. In 1426, the number was reduced to two. In 1636, it was sought by a party in the corporation, to elect a mayor instead of two bailiffs but the attempt failed. The change was however made in the charter by Charles II in 1684. This being abrogated by James II in 1688, the town reverted to its old usage until 1703.

The commission of the peace for 1862, comprises 28 magistrates.

Two grand assemblies of the corporation were held during the official year, without notice or summons—on St. John's day, August 29th, for the election of Mayor, and on the Friday before Palm Sunday, for "reading off" the accounts. The chief magistrate was elected by a very singular custom peculiar to Great Yarmouth. After service at St. Nicholas, the assembly was held in the Guildhall. The cryer of the court then summoned the members,—"*Ye good Gentlemen, that ought to appear at this grand assembly, answer to your names, as ye shall be called.*" The clerk read over the names of the corporation, and four hats were placed before the mayor, the names of the common council present and eligible, were read out by the clerk, who wrote them on paper carefully folded up, and put six in each hat. A boy from the crowd was placed on the table, who drew out three names from each hat. An inquest of these 12 persons being thus formed, the following oath was administered to them.

"You shall well and indifferently, and according to your duty, and according to the Charter of this Corporation, and the Usages and Ordinances thereof, make choice of one of the best and most discreet men, being one of the Aldermen of this Corporation, to exercise and occupy the Office of Mayor of and within this Borough, and the limits and precincts of the same, for one year, from Michaelmas next coming. And you shall choose and make like true and indifferent election of all other officers (to wit) a Vestry, to consist of four Aldermen and three Common-Councilmen, of whom the Churchwardens are to be two; and also one Chamberlain, two Churchwardens, two Muragers, two Collectors of the Fishing Doles, four Auditors, and sixteen Tellers of Herrings; and you shall not fail thus to do, not leaving for fear, fraud, collusion, or favour of any person; you shall not reveal nor disclose any speeches between any of you of this Inquest, touching the said Elections, which are to be concealed.*

"SO HELP YOU GOD."

The clerk then read the names of the aldermen eligible to serve the office of mayor: and the following oath was administered to the serjeants appointed by the mayor, to take charge of the inquest,—

"You shall keep this Inquest together, until they are agreed of their Verdict, without meat, drink, fire and candle. You shall not suffer them, nor any of them, to speak to any person, nor any one to speak to them, unless it be yourselves, and that only to ask them whether they be agreed of their Verdict or not."

The inquest were then locked up in the hall, to consider their verdict. If it happened that the inquest "laid" more than one night, other serjeants were appointed and sworn. On receiving

* In 1748, the opinion of Serjeant Prime was taken, as to whether this custom of electing the churchwardens was legal, without the approbation of the minister or parishioners; and he considered that it was "maintainable at law, and that churchwardens so chosen, were duly elected."—PALMER.

notice that the inquest had agreed, (for which purpose nine out of the twelve was sufficient,) the mayor sent to request the attendance of the other members of the corporation, and then repaired to the guildhall, when, the inquest having been called over, the verdict was received and proclaimed. The persons present then "took Mr. New-Elect by the hand," and his acceptance was recorded.

Considerable manœuvring took place at some of these elections, to secure the return of particular candidates,* and as a witness drily observed at the corporation investigation in 1834, "the determination in a long lay, generally comes to those who have the most biscuits in their pockets." The *Pandectula* of business to be transacted annually by the Mayor, as compiled in 1785, are given at length in Mr. Palmer's history, and from a most formidable list.†

The municipal arms were originally *or* on a field *azure*, three herrings *argent*. Afterwards the royal arms were placed *in chief* with three herrings, two and one in the field. By Edward III., the ancient arms were dimidiated with the royal coat, in acknowledgment of the services rendered by the town during his French wars. The motto is *rex et nostra jura*. The municipal insignia are of unusually respectable quality, and include two silver maces, gilt, about 4 feet in length, surmounted with the imperial crown, richly chased. There are also three smaller silver maces of great antiquity, and a pocket one for the use of the mayor. A handsome sword of justice is borne before him. A silver oar, gilt, was added to the insignia in 1745. A gold chain of many strands was purchased by a subscription, in 1734, of £166, to be worn by the respective mayors for ever. Prescription requires the mayor, wearing his chain, and preceded by the insignia of office, to attend Divine Service, at St. Nicholas' Church, every Sunday morning, accompanied by such members of the town council as think proper to attend.

Robes of office were used from a very early period, and repeated ordinances and fines strictly enforced the wearing of "gowns of scarlett, furred with typpetts and dubletts of velvet, after the ancient and honourable custom of the town, without time of memory used." In 1715, the mayor and justices were allowed to wear gowns "of black silk only." All the corporation were re-

* In 1744, the inquest were locked up in the Guildhall ten days. In 1765, six days, in 1767, three days, in 1814, the inquest deliberated 54 hours.

† The Yarmouth corporation appear to have been mighty sticklers for upholding the dignity of their office. In 1604, Manship, the historian of the town, and its Town Clerk, was dismissed for saying that Mr. Damett and Mr. Wheeler, members of the corporation, and its representatives, "had behaved themselves in Parliament like dunces, and were both sheep." In 1602, one James Smith, was tried at the sessions, and fined £10, and to be imprisoned until the money be paid, for saying of Sir Thomas Medowe, one of the bailiffs, "He is a fool, and I have killed a bull of 30s. that had better brains than Sir Thomas have."

quired to wear their gowns at "St. George's Chapel," as well as "at the old church, and they were constantly to attend Mr. Mayor at the great church in their formalities." On scarlet or red letter days, (of which there were 13 in the course of the year,) on the return of the corporation from church, the mayor gave a "whet" or luncheon, at his own house, or at the town hall. Damask gowns to be worn by aldermen, who had passed the chair, were introduced in 1760. The common council wore gowns of black stuff, fringed with silk. Robes of office were also worn by the water bailiff, the town clerk, the serjeants at mace, the sword-bearer, and the gaoler.*

To keep up with proper spirit the festivities for which Yarmouth was widely famed, the mayor had an allowance of £250 from the corporate funds, together with the very considerable fees belonging to the office.† John Speed, in his chronicle written in 1611, specially notes "the inhabitants are so courteous, as they have a long time held a custom to feast all persons of worth repairing thither." Nashe commends their usage of himself most lustily, "in Great Yarmouth, in Norfolk, I arrived at the latter end of autumn; where, having scarce looked about me, my presaging mind said to itself, *Hic favonius serenus est, hic auster umbricus*, this is a predestinated fit place for Pierse Pennyless to set up his staff in. Therein not much diameter to my divining hopes, did the event sort itself, for six weeks first and last under that predominant constellation of Aquarius or Jove's nectar filled, took I up my repose, and there met with such kind entertainment, and benign hospitality." A goodly list commencing in 1382, and continuing far into this century, is given by Mr. Palmer of noble feasts offered by the corporation to illustrious and royal visitors, and of presents of hogsheads of wine, sack, and old red port, claret, and white wine, silver tankards, cags of sturgeon, quarters of lyng, and other dainties.

No wonder that a town which practised such unwonted hospitalities, and proffered guerdons so substantial, was at no loss to fill up its honorary dignities and appointments, with a succession of distinguished personages. Among its high stewards are enrolled the names of many of our great historic celebrities. The office of high steward of a borough, assimilates with that of Lord High Steward of England, and is probably of equal antiquity. A yearly salary of £4 was attached to the office in Yarmouth, and entries of its payment occur in the time of Henry VII. Among those who

* Since the passing of the Municipal Corporations Act in 1835, the corporators have ceased to wear robes of office; but after a lapse of nearly thirty years, the ancient custom is to be partially revived. The Town Council have determined that on all state occasions the Mayor shall appear in a robe of scarlet damask, and on ordinary occasions in a robe of black silk. The town clerk, sword bearer, and serjeants at mace, are also to wear robes of office.

† These have now all disappeared, and he receives no allowance whatever.

held successively the high stewardship of Yarmouth were—

1551.—John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, the most powerful subject during the last years of Edward VI: father-in-law of Lady Jane Grey, chief plotter of the usurpation of which she was the puppet; beheaded on Tower Hill 1553.

1554.—Thomas Howard, Duke of Norfolk, noblest of the many victims ensnared by the fatal charms of the Queen of Scots; beheaded 1572.

1572.—Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester,—"Queen Elizabeth's Leicester" Amy Robsart, his ill fated wife, was a daughter and heiress of a Norfolk Knight, Sir John Robsart of Stanfield Hall, (which passed later to the Jermys.)

1588.—William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, Lord High Treasurer of England. In 1578, in company with Leicester he visited Yarmouth, and was pleased, Manship reports "in my hearing, highly to commend the stately uniform buildings then in it."

1598.—Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, Queen Elizabeth's rash, brilliant, impetuous, ill-starred favourite; beheaded 1601.

1601.—Charles Howard, Earl of Nottingham. As Lord High Admiral of England, repelled the Spanish Armada. It was to Nottingham that Essex surrendered, after his mad and fatal attempt to raise the city.

1628.—Robert Sydney, Earl of Leicester.

1629.—Edward Sackville, Earl of Dorset, one of the ablest, and and most accomplished of the cavalier nobles; Clarendon has sketched his portrait. "His person was graceful and vigorous, and his wit sparkling; as he was eminent in the House of Commons while he sat there, so he shone in the House of Peers, when he came to move in that sphere; he had a very discerning spirit; and was a man of an obliging nature, much honour and generosity, and of an entire fidelity to the crown"

1653.—The Lord Henry Cromwell, youngest son of Oliver. At the Restoration he was displaced.

1660.—Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, Lord High Chancellor. The annalist of the civil wars: Father-in-law of James II.

1672.—Robert Paston, Viscount Yarmouth. A distinguished royalist. During Charles II's exile, he "willingly resigned his estate, to supply his necessities." In 1671, the King honoured him with a visit at his magnificent seat of Oxnead. On August 9th, 1676, he was beset in the night by some villains, who shot 5 bullets through his coach, one of which went through his body, but without killing him.

1683.—William Paston, Earl of Yarmouth, son of the preceding. He married Charlotte Fitzroy, (natural daughter of Charles II, by a daughter of Killigrew). His children all dying in his lifetime—the Paston family became extinct in the male line

1732.—Sir Robert Walpole, the great commoner and statesman.

1745.—Robert Walpole, Earl of Orford, son of the preceding.

1751.—George Walpole, Earl of Orford, son of the last.

1791.—George Townshend. Marquis Townshend, Grandson of "Turnip" Townshend. A distinguished soldier and statesman. He fought at Dettingen, Fontenoy, Culloden, and Lafeldt. At Quebec he took the command of the army on the death of Wolfe. As Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, he was long remembered for his conviviality. His wife Charlotte, only surviving child of the Earl of Northampton, brought into the Townshend family shield, upwards of 250 quarterings.

1808.—Charles Townshend, Lord Bayning.

1815.—John Thomas Townshend, Viscount Sydney. Dying in 1831, he closed the connexion which had existed between Yarmouth and the Townshend family for one hundred and twenty years.

1832.—Edward Pellew, Admiral Viscount Exmouth, one of England's greatest naval commanders,—on no one could the honour have been more appropriately conferred.

1833.—Horatio Walpole, Earl of Orford.

1836.—Thomas William Anson, Earl of Lichfield.

1854.—George John Milles, Baron Sondes.

Among the Stewards of Yarmouth, the name of most celebrity is that of Serjeant Flowerdew, in 1580, an able lawyer, a wealthy, oppressive, and avaricious man: a spoiler of church property. Dying in 1586, his body "for want of a gravestone at his friend's cost, was covered by one from another man's grave." His sacrilegious greed in stripping off the lead from the stately Abbey of Wymondham, led to its demolition; and incidentally to the famous Kett insurrection. At Hetherset, the place of his burial, he removed the tombs and disencumbered the dead of their winding sheets of lead. He resided at Stanfield Hall.

Among its Recorders—the most noteworthy were Miles Corbet, the Regicide, its representative in parliament for many years, and Robert Alderson, a distinguished lawyer, and father of an abler son, the late Baron Alderson. In 1834, a very close contest took place in the corporation, the candidates being Mr. Serjeant Merewether, and Mr. Isaac Preston, and on two divisions the numbers were equal; on the third, a member who had refrained from voting gave a casting vote in the Serjeant's favour. Mr. Preston had held from 1819 the office of sub-steward, or assistant recorder. He was also recorder of Norwich. On the death of his father, the Rev. George Preston, he succeeded to the Stanfield estate, and assumed the name of Jermy. "On the 28th November, 1848, Mr Jermy was shot dead at his hall door by one of his tenants, James Blomfield Rush, who then entering the house, and meeting Mr. Jermy Jermy, the only son of his first victim, shot him dead also. He then fired at and severely wounded Mrs Jermy, (the son's wife,) and a female servant: Mr. Jermy's daughter, who was present, escaped unhurt." Rush was subsequently hung at Norwich.

No name of particular note occurs among its other legal functionaries, its coroners, town clerks, town counsel, and solicitors, its water bailiffs, and its officers of the admiralty courts. Of these last, the registrar at the time of the abolition of the court, Mr. Robert Cory, was a man of considerable literary and antiquarian research. He gathered together many materials for the history of his native town, but abandoning his idea of publishing them, after his death they formed a part of the documents placed at the service of Mr. Palmer.

The large stores of plate originally owned by the corporation have been greatly reduced. Part were sold to assist in cutting the haven, and most of what was left, coined for the use of the Parliament during the civil war. A large silver drinking cup with cover, a massive rose-water dish, and a silver punch bowl, are the chief ornaments of the corporation buffet.

The old Guildhall was pulled down in 1723, and replaced by a most unsightly structure. Here, until 1835, the assemblies were held, and from here, on Sunday mornings, the corporation walked in procession to church. Here also members of Parliament were nominated, and vestry meetings held. The Town Hall, erected on the quay in 1716, for the use of the corporation, having rendered this building superfluous; in 1850, it was pulled down, and a fine view of the church from the market place opened up.

Notes of the Local History of Yarmouth.

Of the local history of Yarmouth during the Anglo Saxon period, very little authentic is known. It was under the Plantagenet Sovereigns that it rose into importance, as one of the chief towns on

the Eastern Coast. Their Continental dominions and their marriages, wars, and commercial treaties with the rulers of the Netherlands and of France, occasioned continued intercourse with the opposite shores. In the wars waged by these Sovereigns with their turbulent barons, Yarmouth appears to have uniformly sided with the crown. Its fortifications were regarded as the keys of the district, and it received from successive Kings many marks of favour, including those charters which conferred upon it special and exceptional privileges. The local insurrections under Litester and Kett, met with no aid or countenance from the town. During the Middle Ages its commerce and advantageous site gave to Yarmouth some resemblance to those large trading cities of the Continent, which leagued together for mutual protection, and whose aid was courted by adjacent nobles. The town was free from the domination of any powerful lord,—owed no feudal obligations,—had risen out of the sands entirely by the industry of its inhabitants. Its fisheries and commerce rendered it independent of extraneous influences. It contained within itself all the needful elements of self-government; and was proud of those rights and immunities which excited the envy of its neighbours, to whose interests some of these were injurious, and whose repeated efforts to have them abrogated, only caused the townsmen to cling to them with jealous tenacity. Its continued struggles and litigations to preserve these rights intact, served to keep up a healthy activity in its governing body,—to form a bond of union for the community who all profited by them,—and to foster a spirit of sturdy self-reliance in the burgh. The commercial code of the period was essentially narrow and selfish, and local privileges were prized in proportion to their exclusiveness. As much freedom of trade for their own imports and exports, and as much toll as they could levy on their neighbours, under plea of maintenance of the haven, was for several centuries the policy of Yarmouth. 'At a later period when its corporation sought to convert the produce of its fisheries into a monopoly, great injury resulted to the prosperity of the town.

When the attempt was made to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne Yarmouth and Norwich were foremost in declaring for Queen Mary, and the capture by Yarmouth of the fleet dispatched by Dudley to intercept the anticipated flight of Mary, contributed to the rapid discomfiture of the plot. Possibly the remembrance of this service shewn to her sister, was an actuating motive for the kindness which Elizabeth displayed to the town, in the bounties, loans, grants, and immunities given in the period of Yarmouth's great distress during the final, and successful attempt to keep open its haven.

The injury inflicted on trade and commerce by the many oppressive patents and monopolies conferred on her favourites by Elizabeth though grievously felt, in conjunction with her rigour in ecclesiast-

ical matters, had been borne by her subjects—in consideration of the vigour and greatness of her rule, but, on the accession of the Stuart dynasty, who proceeded to enforce and aggravate her most arbitrary proceedings, without displaying a particle of her prudence and sagacity,—a spirit of discontent was aroused.* The obnoxious mode of replenishing the king's exchequer by forced loans, practised by some of our earlier sovereigns, was revived. Under James I, the sums levied were moderate in amount. By Charles I, during his conflicts with his first parliaments, they were frequently resorted to, and very onerous sums were imposed.† In conjunction with his arbitrary conduct in ecclesiastical matters, it raised up in Yarmouth a powerful party, who throughout the troubles that ensued, threw the influence of the town into the scale of the Parliament. Among its leaders the most considerable were Miles Corbet, son of Sir Thomas Corbet, of Sprowston, the Recorder of Yarmouth, and 37 years one of its representatives in Parliament, a man of resolution and ability;—Edward Owner,‡ its mayor on several occasions and returned to

* In 1635, a patent had been granted to Thomas Davis for twenty-one years, conferring the privilege of guaging all barrels of red herrings, at a fee of 2s. 3d. per last, a patent which practically resulted in a fee for doing nothing beyond creating great irritation and annoyance in the fishery. Another Yarmouth grievance was the salt monopoly, granted to a company of adventurers in the north, which acted very injuriously on the staple industry of the town. The illegal impost of "Ship Money," and the impressment of its ablest seamen were further causes of complaint.

† In 1634, on the famous levy of "Ship money," a writ was issued to Yarmouth and other maritime places in Norfolk, requiring them to furnish a ship of war of 600 tons, with 260 men at the least, fully supplied with ordnance and ammunition. Their delegates met and decided "there was no such ship to be had, and that the cost of providing one would be £5360." After very great pressure, £1000 was squeezed out of the town.

‡ He was born in 1576, and represented the town in the parliaments elected in 1620, 1625, 1639, and 1640. In 1635 he was cited before the Earl of Arundel (marshal of England), at the suit of the bailiffs of the Cinque Ports, who made complaints "that one Edward Owner, one of the bailiffs of the said town, a man of turbulent spirit, minding to affront and disgrace and provoke them, did uncivilly keep them without the bar, setting his foot across the entrance, and holding his hand on the end of the bar." The marshal accommodated the dispute recommending "a more courteous carriage and friendly demeanour in future." [We give the curious petition in full, in our Appendix.] In the year following he was appointed president of an artillery corps. In parliament he warmly opposed the "ship money," and was one of those who voted it "illegal;" and on the breaking out of the civil war, he actively exerted himself to place the town in a state of defence, toward which he contributed both plate and money. He became a republican and a Presbyterian. He appears to have laboured very actively for the social good of the town, and it was mainly through his exertions that the Children's Hospital School was established, himself endowing it with £1500. He also suggested the erection of a new workhouse; and the town is indebted to him for obtaining the Irish estate, to which he subscribed £180. In 1645, he suggested to the corporation "the purchasing a public library for the town, and providing a place for the same;" and to raise money for that purpose, "it was thought fit that members of the society and able inhabitants should be required to subscribe." He died on 13th of August, 1650, and was buried in the north aisle of St. Nicholas' Church.—TURNER.

various Parliaments, one of those who voted ship money "illegal:" among the most active of the republicans, and a great benefactor to the town,—and John Carter, descended from an old local family, a merchant and alderman of the town, and a leader of the Presbyterian party. He was foremost in the loans of money and plate, subscribed to the Solemn League and Covenant, and was later on appointed Commander in Chief of the Militia of Yarmouth, with full powers to execute martial law. Resisting the dictation of the Government to nominate its members of Parliament, when a rupture ensued, in 1642, on the King's Proclamation—forbidding all levies of forces without His Majesty's express pleasure signified—the corporation, at an assembly where it was read, together with a declaration of Parliament forbidding its publication, determined to observe the orders of Parliament as most fit to preserve the public peace, both for king and kingdom. Money and plate were cheerfully voted to assist the House of Commons in the war now commencing, and the Train Bands were mustered and placed under arms. A ship dispatched from Holland by Henrietta Maria, with arms and 150 soldiers, was driven into Yarmouth Roads and captured. An important packet of letters which had been shotted to sink them, were dived for, brought up, and forwarded to the House. The town did not escape the hardships experienced throughout the country during the civil wars. Parliamentary troops were quartered upon it, subjecting it to repeated and very onerous exactions. In 1648, Fairfax marched in; and three days later the regiment of Colonel Barkstead. To prevent free quarters, the corporation paid £400, and shortly after a weekly levy of £175. Admiral Blake's sick and wounded seamen were a further charge thrown upon it, besides the maintenance of the prisoners taken in the war, for which, in 1650, the town disbursed £335. The trade and fisheries of Yarmouth were crippled by privateers sailing under the royalist flag. In 1643, twenty of its Iceland fishery boats were captured, three only escaping. Its shipping was sorely harrassed by Captain Allen, a redoubtable seaman of its rival Lowestoft, which had warmly espoused the cause of the king. The distress of the town compelled it to alienate a large portion of its estates to defray its charges. Cromwell, who commanded in the district, and whose influence was all-powerful in Yarmouth, sent his son-in-law, Ireton, to in-garrison the town. He was the guest of John Carter, and tradition asserts that at one of the meetings of the officers of the army held in his house, the death of the king was discussed and resolved on.*

* At this period Yarmouth was one of the chief strongholds of Cromwell's adherents. "Bradshaw (who became "President of the High Court of Justice,") is said to have had a house here; Miles Corbet, the Recorder and Burgess in parliament for the town, was much trusted and consulted by his party; Barkstead was Military Governor, and his regiment garrisoned the town; Ireton and Scroope both visited the town. All these men sat as Judges on the trial of the king, and signed the warrant for his execution. Col. Goffe,

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No sooner was Charles beheaded, than parliament proceeded to usurp some of those arbitrary powers which had originated the resistance to the king. The corporation of Yarmouth was violently purged of its disaffected members.* Cromwell was made Lord Protector in 1653, and his son the Lord Henry, elected High Steward of Yarmouth, and presented with a silver tankard. Soon after, Col. Goffe, who with Miles Corbet had signed the warrant for Charles' execution, was returned jointly with him to parliament, by the Puritan section of the corporation, despite the opposition of the royalist party in the borough, who sought to throw the election open instead of confining the right of voting to the corporation exclusively;—the practise up to this period. On September 3rd, 1658, the Great Protector died, and his son the Lord Richard was immediately proclaimed at Yarmouth. An address remarkable even amongst corporation addresses, for its sycophancy, was voted on the occasion.† They professed that they could not “without the deepest and most sad resentment, remember that dark dispensation of the most wise God, in taking out of this world His Highness' most renowned father,—the prince and leader of His people in the three nations—translating him from a temporal to an immortal crown:” lamenting that one “so good, so great, the Captain of the Lord's host,” had “fallen in Israel,” comforting themselves “it pleasing our good God to bind up our wounds, and to heal the breach of the daughter of His people, by your Highness' so immediate peaceful succession, after so many cursed plots of the sons of Belial, and children of darkness.” After more of this puritanical snuffle, they conclude by describing themselves as “unworthy to be numbered amongst the least of the tribes of Israel”—“then will our God say, I have found one, the son of my servant, a man after mine own heart, he shall fulfil all my will; and then shall Jacob rejoice and Israel shall be glad, and not cease to pray for the precious things of heaven, above him, and of the earth beneath, and the fulness thereof, and for the good will of him that dwelt in the bush. Let this blessing come upon the head of

another regicide, (who married a daughter of Major-General Whalley, also a regicide and a relative of Cromwell,) was afterwards elected Burgess in parliament for the town; Carter's son Nathaniel, married Mary, daughter of General Ireton, and, consequently, grand-daughter of Cromwell; Thomas Bendish, of Yarmouth, married another daughter of General Ireton; and William Burton, of Yarmouth, married a daughter of General Desborough, Cromwell's brother-in-law. There was probably, therefore, a considerable personal intimacy between the leaders of the Independents and their followers in Yarmouth.”—PALMER.

* That there was a large minority in the town hostile to the party now dominant, is evident from the proceedings on this occasion. Six aldermen and sixteen common council-men resigned or were dismissed.

† This document will be found printed in full, in the Appendix.

your highness, and upon the top of the head of him that is separated above his brethren."*

At the Restoration, the vengeance of the court immediately extended to Yarmouth. There was a thorough purgation of the corporation, whose address to the Lord Richard was disclaimed, obliterated, and made void. The charters of the town had to be surrendered. New ones were issued, giving power to the King to nominate his adherents to the chief offices. Miles Corbet, had fled with Colonels Okey and Barkstead to Amsterdam. Warned by the magistrates there, that the pursuers of blood were on their track, they returned to Hannau. Unhappily they ventured back to Rotterdam, in order to remove their families. Downing, the English ambassador, a wretch, who owed his rise and present fortunes to Okey, learnt their return, and vehemently demanded from the States of Holland permission to arrest them, a demand to the general surprise, supported by the Grand Pensionary, John de Witt, who, seeking to deprecate the personal hostility borne him by Charles II. sacrificed the noble privilege his country had hitherto enjoyed, of being the European Sanctuary for the distressed of all nations. They were apprehended at Delft. Pepys notes their arrival in his diary, March 17, 1662. "Last night the *Blackmore* pink brought the three prisoners, Barkstead, Okey, and Corbet, to the Tower, being taken at Delfe, in Holland; where the captain tells me, the Dutch were a good while before they could be persuaded to let them go, (they were taken prisoners in their canal.) But Sir George Downing would not be answered so; tho' all the world takes notice of him for a most ungrateful villain for his pains."† On the 16th of April, Corbet and his fellow prisoners were tried and condemned for high treason; and the sequel is thus told by Pepys,—'April 19th, 1662: Before we sat, I went to Aldgate, and at the corner shop (a draper's) I stood and did see Barkestead, Okey, and Corbet, drawne towards the gallows at Ti-

* Years after, when the Lord Richard had subsided into an obscure country gentleman, he was wont in moments of after dinner exhilaration, to request his guests with an air of mystery to accompany him; and leading them to a loft he bestrode a chest and declared that he sat upon the lives and liberties of England. After they had been sufficiently bewildered he would raise the lid and reveal a mass of the cringing addresses forwarded to him by the various corporations and public bodies during his brief term of power. If many of these resembled the Yarmouth effusion, there must have been ample provocatives for the cynical jesting of the Lord Richard.

† March 12th, 1662. Pepys after branding Sir G. Downing as a "perfidious rogue," continues, "Sir W. Pen, talking to me this afternoon of what a strange thing it is for Downing to do this; he told me of a speech he made to the Lords' States of Holland, telling them to their faces, that he observed that he was not received with the respect and observance now, that he was when he came from the traitor and rebell Cromwell; by whom, I am sure, he hath got all he hath in the world,—and they know it too" Downing had been chaplain to Okey's regiment, and had been raised by his influence to the post of Resident of Holland, which he retained at the Restoration by this betrayal of his benefactor.

burne; and there they were hanged and quartered: they all looked very cheerful, but I hear they all die defending what they did to the King to be just—which is very strange!"

Colonel Goffe had found a safe place of refuge in New England. John Carter appears to have resigned his gown and retired from public notice. He had grown old, and like the great poet of his party could exclaim "that his lot had fallen on evil days." Many of the friends with whom he had cast in his lot in that stirring and eventful period, were now mouldering in bloody and desecrated graves, or had fled to the uttermost corners of the earth. There is a mournful significance in the lines which were engraven on his tomb in the chancel of St. Nicholas' Church, where he was buried in 1667, aged 73.*

"His court, his fight, his race,
Thus finished, fought, and run
Death brings him to the place
From whence is no return.
Never did seaman harbour spy,
Nor pilgrim see his home draw nigh;
Nor captive hear of his return,
Nor servant his indenture burn;
Nor banished prince retrieve his crown.
Nor tired man at night lie down;
With greater joy than he exprest,
At sight of his approaching rest."

In 1671, Charles II, accompanied by the Dukes of York, Monmouth, and Buckingham, visited Yarmouth. An address was duly presented by the newly purged and loyal corporation, describing the royal prerogative, as that "by which alone corporations and bodies politic are created, formed, fashioned, and continued," and by which they "live, move, and have their being,"—together with four herrings made of gold, and a chain, costing £250. It is hard to say which is the more grovelling, or profane, the address to Richard Cromwell, or the speech to Charles, by the recorder.† The royal visit cost

* A remarkable print of him at the age of 81, with a skeleton holding an arrow by his side, is published in the Norfolk Portraits, engraved by Edwards. His two sons dying childless, with him ended the family, of which it is said "it has been remarkable in this town for ages, and tho' now extinct, the memory of its good deeds shall never be extinguished." His son Nathaniel's wife, was Mary the youngest daughter of General Ireton, and sister to Mrs. Bendish. Her mother, after Ireton's death, marrying the Lord Deputy Fleetwood, she was in the marriage license styled the Hon. Mary Fleetwood, and is so designated on her tomb.

† A poem "upon His Majesty's progress into Norfolk," was soon after published. It opens,

"Yarmouth had first, (O more than happy Port!
The honor to receive the King and court,
And entertain, season providing dishes,
The King of ENGLAND with the king of fishes.

the town £1000.* In 1681, the ship conveying the Duke of York to Scotland, struck on the Lemon and Owers sand, twelve leagues from Yarmouth. The Duke escaped in a shallop, with but six persons besides the rowers. Among the fortunate number were Col. Churchill, (afterwards Duke of Marlborough,) the Earl of Aberdeen, the Duke of Montrose, and a "poor fiddler." In 1687, during the crisis of the efforts of James II to bend the parliament and people to his will, the corporation of Yarmouth suffered repeated purgations. By an order in council, six aldermen, and eleven common council-men were expelled, and others nominated. Subsequently three aldermen and four of the common council were dismissed, and a difficulty was found in filling their places. "In the course of a few days," writes Macauley, "the borough of Yarmouth was governed by three different sets of magistrates, all equally hostile to the court." Nowhere was the accession of William III received with greater satisfaction. In 1689, King William and Queen Mary were proclaimed at Yarmouth, "with all imaginable joy and solemnity," and in 1692, William on his return from the Campaign in Flanders landed here, and was entertained by the corporation "in the best manner that could be."

As one of the most important of our maritime ports, Yarmouth contributed its quota of seamen, and largely shared in the rejoicings at the several naval victories, gained at the close of the last and the commencement of the present century. From Yarmouth, Admiral Duncan sailed in 1797, to defeat the Dutch Fleet in the hard fought fight of Camperdown, an engagement so powerfully described by Burke in the Annual Register for that year. It is difficult to read at the present day the story of our unjustifiable onslaught on the Dutch, without feelings of shame. Duncan returned to port with seven sail of the line as prizes. The freedom of the town was presented to the Victor and to Onslow, his second in command, and shortly after to Earl St. Vincent, for his victory over the Spanish Fleet.

For Nelson, the Hero of Norfolk, the enthusiasm of the town

A Royal mess,—what herrings, pray were they?
Not red, nor white, pickel'd, nor bloat, they say:
No milch, but all hard rows; strange kind of MEAT
Herrings you might digest, but could not eat,
Whose eyes were RUBINS, and whose scales were gold:

* "Not long after, the King began to make several progresses . . . being attended by his royal brother, the prince Rupert, the dukes of Monmouth, Buckingham, &c, and some part of the way, with the Queen herself. On the 26th the noble train set out from Newmarket, to the Lord Arlington's house at Euston Hall, and from thence to the town of YARMOUTH, where his Majesty was received with all possible expressions of joy, and with the discharge of above twelve hundred pieces of ordnance, from the ships and the town. His Majesty was infinitely pleased with the town and the port and said HE DID NOT THINK HE HAD HAD SUCH A PLACE IN HIS DOMINIONS; and having received a noble treat from the magistrates, he went to visit the city of Norwich."—*ECCLARD'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND*, VOL. III.

was naturally roused to a pitch of intensity, when, on the 6th November, 1800, after the battle of the Nile, he arrived in Yarmouth Roads. The weather was stormy, and his coxswain hesitated to undertake so responsible a task as to land him. A glass of grog and the firm resolve of Nelson overcame his reluctance. As the hero stepped on shore he was met by the greeting of his friends and the loud cheers of the crowd, who taking the horses from his carriage drew him in triumph to the Wrestlers Hotel, on the Church Plain,* where he was waited on by the corporation, who presented him with the freedom of the burgh. The town clerk, when about to administer the oath, observed that Nelson's left hand was on the book,—“your right hand my Lord” exclaimed the official.—“that” said Nelson “is at Teneriffe.” In the evening the new burgess dined with the mayor. Accompanied by the corporation, all the naval officers on shore, by Sir William and Lady Hamilton, and the chief inhabitants, Nelson went in procession to the parish Church to return thanks to Almighty God for his safe return. The troops were paraded before his lodgings with their band, firing a *feux de joie* of musketry and cannon, until midnight. All the shipping hoisted flags, the town was illuminated and bonfires lighted up, in short, every mode of rejoicing that could be devised was set going. On leaving Yarmouth, the Yeomanry Cavalry unexpectedly drew up, saluted and followed the carriage, not only to the town's end, but as far as Lowestoft. On the 12th March, 1801, a squadron of 40 pendants, sailed from Yarmouth Roads for Copenhagen. Nelson led the van. The great victory which soon after followed was the result of Nelson's daring. Resigning his command on account of ill health he landed at Yarmouth Jetty, July 1, 1801, and was again enthusiastically received. The victory of Trafalgar so dearly purchased with his life, elicited an address to the throne from the corporation, deploring his loss. A public subscription raised in the district was employed in the erection of the noble column on the South Denes.

In July, 1807, a fleet of 100 sail and 400 transports under Lord Gambier, sailed from the Roads to fight the second battle of Copenhagen. Many of the prizes, which comprised 64 vessels, mounting 2000 guns, were brought into Yarmouth.

Public festivities were held on a scale of unusual magnitude at Yarmouth at the Peace in 1814. Tables were placed the entire length of the quay, and 8000 persons entertained. Since then nearly 50 years have elapsed; during that period few towns have made greater efforts in social, local, and sanitary improvements. How much has been done, and the large amount expended, would be a matter of surprise if recapitulated.

During the alarms of French invasions, which arose from time to time during the last 150 years, Yarmouth was repeatedly garrisoned by regiments of the line, militia, and yeomanry. Besides

* Afterwards called the Nelson Hotel, now converted into private houses.

contributing its full quota to our navy, army, and militia, it has now organised a body of volunteers, respectable both for numbers and efficiency. The Volunteer Artillery includes 230 members, and the Rifle Battalion musters 290 men.

Parliamentary Notes.

Yarmouth was first summoned to send burgesses to parliament in 1294. These were elected by the commonalty or freemen, until the corporation selected from the body of freemen, in time contrived to limit the election to themselves. In 1552, they nominated a bailiff, six aldermen, and six common council-men, to elect and choose two burgesses of parliament—payment was made to the members during several centuries at the rate of 2s. per day and travelling expenses. The Fastolf and Paston families had great influence here in the 14th and 15th centuries. At critical periods the crown repeatedly interfered to nominate its creatures to the returning officers of the boroughs. This was notably practised by that great master of king-craft, James I. In 1623, the Bishop of Norwich was employed to influence the choice of Great Yarmouth, and met with a respectful refusal. When the famous Long Parliament of Charles I was called together, great efforts were made to influence the elections, and very pressing and repeated letters were forwarded by the Earl of Northumberland, the Lord High Admiral, and the Earl of Dorset, recommending candidates. The corporation were undaunted and returned to that eventful parliament two of the most determined opponents of the royal policy. At the election of members to Cromwell's parliament in 1654, the rights of the freemen to a voice in the election were asserted, but overruled. Their claim was however successfully established in the parliament of 1660. The corporation persisted in returning their nominees, and a petition was forwarded against the return by the freemen who had elected two royalists. On appeal, the House of Commons decided that the right of voting lay with the freemen at large. In 1686, an attempt was made by the corporation to regain their exclusive powers. The new charter of Charles II, had vested in the crown the power of nominating the members of the borough corporations and re-clothed them with the election of parliamentary representatives. They had been packed with adherents of the King, and were now set to pack the House of Commons. On the 24th March, 1686, the corporation proceeded to elect two members. Their election was appealed against and set aside, the two candidates elected by the freemen at large served in the parliament, and from that time forward the right of the freemen was acquiesced in by the corporation.

In 1708, the Townshends, a noble Norfolk family, who now began to make a figure in the state, turned their attention to Yarmouth, and for nearly a century and a half maintained their footing in the borough. For many years this was shared with another

Norfolk family—the Walpoles, and the great commoner, Sir Robert, had no more loyal adherents than the burgesses of Yarmouth.* It was not until 1741, that the corporation made an order for the discontinuance of the customary payments, gratuities, and presents to members. In 1747, Charles Townshend, “the most brilliant and versatile of mankind was returned.”† Up to the fall of the famous coalition ministry of Fox and North, a Townshend and a Walpole continued to sit.‡ All the opposition raised against them invariably failed. But in 1784, the great unpopularity of the coalitionists throughout the country made itself felt at Yarmouth.§ Mr. Walpole declined to face the storm, and the family are heard of no more in Yarmouth. Mr. Townshend was defeated, but clung fast to the borough, and regained his seat in 1790. In 1796, his relative Lord Charles Townshend succeeded him in the representation. A sad event occurring the following day rendered his seat vacant.§ In 1802, popular feeling was aroused by the war with France. Sir Thomas Troubridge “the

* The Succession War with Spain, which drove Walpole from office and at the outset of which he exclaimed “They are ringing the bells now, but they will wring their hands before they have done,” although very popular at its commencement, was not much favoured by the authorities in those towns where the Walpole interest prevailed. At Yarmouth, it is said, that the war was proclaimed, in 1736, “without beat of drum, because not Sir Robert’s war; nay, the drummers were reprimanded for beating a point of war to a private company.” There is a letter in the *Gentleman’s Magazine* of that year, denouncing their disloyalty.

† Burke says of him,—“He was the delight and ornament of the house, and the charm of every private society which he honoured with his presence. Perhaps there never arose in this country, nor in any country, a man of a more pointed and finished wit; and (where his passions were not concerned) of a more refined, exquisite, and penetrating judgment.”

‡ “As an evidence of the political importance of the Townshend and Walpole families at this time, it may be mentioned that to the Parliament elected June, 1754, FIVE Walpoles were returned, viz.:—Hon. Horace Walpole, Castle Rising; Sir Edward Walpole, Great Yarmouth; the Right Hon. Horatio Walpole, Norwich; Hon. Horatio Walpole, Jun., Lynn; Thomas Walpole, Sudbury; and FIVE Townshends,—Hon. Charles Townshend, Great Yarmouth; Chauncey Townshend, Westbury; Hon. George Townshend, Norfolk; Hon. Thomas Townshend, Cambridge University; Thomas Townshend Jun., Whitchurch.”—PALMER.

§ Sir John Jervis, afterwards Admiral Lord St. Vincent, was returned on this occasion, and sat until 1790.

§ On the day following the election, Lord Frederick Townshend, returned to London, travelling in a post-chaise and four. At six o’clock in the morning, the post-boys pulled up in Oxford street, to enquire where the travellers were to be set down; when they discovered Lord Charles, lying dead in the carriage, shot in the mouth by a pistol, the ball of which had passed through his brain; and his brother, Lord Frederick, in a very excited state. This extraordinary occurrence was the subject of judicial inquiry,—but the mystery was never satisfactorily explained.

Bayard of the English Fleet,"* was returned, with Mr. Jervis, a relation of Earl St. Vincent. At the commencement of this century, a powerful local interest began to make itself felt in the borough, in the Lacon family, by whom several candidates were introduced. In 1812, Sir E. K. Lacon, Bart., (then Mr. Lacon,) was returned with General Loftus, a connection of the Townshend family. The Anson family who were owners of nearly the whole of Southtown (purchased by the circumnavigator from the Paston family,) began also early in this century to put forward their claim to the representation of the town. In 1818, a desperate contest took place between the Lacon family and the Anson family, the latter supported by the influence of Mr Coke, of Holkham, who at that period was all powerful in the county. Mr. Lacon and General Loftus were defeated, and from that time to 1834, the names of Anson and Rumbold are found representing the borough. At the temporary downfall of the reform ministry in 1834, a severe contest resulted in the return of Mr. Thomas Baring, and Mr. Winthrop Mackworth Praed.† The committee appointed to investigate the petition against their return, reported that "it had been an invariable practice, or nearly so, to pay two guineas to each voter who applied for it, and on each side of the question, whether the candidate lost or won; and, that the invariability and impartiality of the payment had, in the opinion of many, divested it of the character of bribery." The contested election of 1847, was also followed by a petition complaining of the gross and systematic bribery amongst the freemen. Inquiry led to an act passed June 30, 1848, depriving the freemen of Yarmouth of their votes.‡ In 1852, Sir E. H. K. Lacon, Bart., was returned with Mr. Rumbold; defeating Mr. Torrens McCullagh and Admiral Sir Charles Napier. From that time Sir E. H. K. Lacon, has continued (with a slight interval but not without stormy contests) to represent his native town, having now for his colleague Sir Henry Stracey, Bart., of Rackheath. The extreme severity of party politics in the borough

* "In 1804, he attained the rank of Rear-Admiral of the Blue, and was afterwards appointed Commander-in-Chief at the Cape of Good Hope. He hoisted his flag on board the *BLENNHEIM*, in which ship he left Madras in 1807, accompanied by the *JAVA* frigate. They were last seen by the *HARRIER*, during a heavy gale off the Mauritius, and were never heard of afterwards.

The waves became his winding sheet, the waters were his tomb;
But, for his fate, the ocean sea was not sufficient room."

† Son of a London Banker. Distinguished as a scholar and a poet. Endowed with abilities of rare promise: he died at the fatal age for genius of 37. He was Secretary to the Board of Control in 1835, and had his life been spared he bade fair to occupy a prominent position in the state!

‡ Their number on the register of 1848, was 1106. Dod's Electoral Facts, 1866, describe Yarmouth as an open borough, in which money is said to be the best friend.

is to be regretted. Many a badgered and bullied elector has re-echoed the pungent lines of CRABBE.

"Yea, our Election's past and we've been free,
Somewhat as madmen without keepers be;
And such desire of Freedom has been shown,
That both the parties wish'd her all their own:
All our free smiths and cobblers in the town
Were loth to lay such pleasant freedom down;
To put the bludgeon and cockade aside,
And let us pass unhurt and undefied.

True! you might then your party's sign produce,
And so escape with only half th' abuse;
With half the danger as you walk'd along,
With rage and threat'ning but from half the throng.
This you might do, and not your fortune mend,
For where you lost a foe, you gained a friend;
And to distress you, vex you, and expose,
Election friends are worse than foes;
The party-curse is with the canvass past,
But party-friendship, to your grief, will last."

Having now glanced hastily at the past history of Yarmouth, we are at liberty to resume our itinerary. Leaving the churchyard by the South Gates, and directing our steps southward, the eye is attracted by a quaint quadrangular pile of buildings, on the left hand—

The Fishermen's Hospital,

erected by the corporation in 1702: it contains 20 comfortable little rooms on the ground floor, with a sleeping room over each. This hospital was built for the reception of twenty decayed fishermen and their wives. No person can be admitted under sixty years of age. The charity is supported by benefactions and had formerly an annuity of £160, granted by Charles II, paid out of the excise on beer as an equivalent for the duty paid by the fishermen in the consumption of that article. On the repeal of the duty the annuity ceased. In the centre of the yard, on a square pedestal, is a figure of Charity; and in the cupola, over the inner gateway, a figure of St. Peter, the patron saint. The hospital is managed by the Charity trustees: 2s. per week in summer, and 2s. 6d. in winter, with coals, are allowed to each couple. Inmates who become widowers, cannot marry persons not residing in the hospital, without the permission of the trustees.

A little beyond, on the same side of the Market, is

The Children's Hospital,

This was the site of the ancient Hospital of St. Mary, founded in 1278, and endowed from time to time with many gifts, including all the ground between Pudding and Market Gates. At an early period it fell into the hands of the corporation, who in 1551, converted the principal rooms into a Grammar School "for all the inhabitants."*

In 1634, principally by the exertions of Mr. Edward Owner, who gave £1000, part of the Hospital was fitted up and settled as a school for the training of poor children. The corporation appropriated £60 a year to this school, and other assistance was obtained, so that in 1678, its accumulated funds amounted to £9000. The corporation then added the rents of an estate in Ireland† belonging to them, and the rents of some houses and land in Yarmouth, so as to make up an income of £500 a year. The total income of the Charity is now about £1000 a year. On this spot also the first Workhouse was established, through the instrumentality of Mr. Owner, to which subsequently a Bridewell was added. All the old buildings were demolished, in 1842, when the present School Rooms, with residences for the master and mistress were erected.

* This school, having for its master a clergyman of the Church of England, continued until 1797, the last master being the Rev. Francis Turner, grandfather of the present Lord Justice Turner. It is the intention of the Charity trustees to re-establish the Grammar School, the want of which has been much felt by the inhabitants.

† This Irish Estate was acquired in 1641, when parliament to raise men and supplies for putting down the rebellion in Ireland, offered to donors of money, gifts of such lands as might be forfeited to the crown. Mr. Edward Owner, one of the members for Yarmouth, and who appears to have been also its most active and public spirited citizen, set the example by subscribing £100, and the sum of £500 was readily made up. For this seasonable aid the town received a grant of 1159 acres in Tipperary, part of the Ormond Estates, and the site on which the town of Clonmel is now built. In 1714, this estate was with little forethought unhappily demised by the corporation for the term of 1000 years, at the annual rent of £100, and a septennial fine of £800. The present value of the estate is several thousands per annum.

Passing the Butchery and the Fish Market, we arrive at

The Charity School.

In 1713, a public Charity School was commenced by a few benevolent persons, for the education of the children of the poor in Yarmouth: 34 boys and 30 girls were admitted. Rooms were hired in 1723, until a site was granted by the corporation on which two large rooms were built. Dwellings for the master and mistress were added in 1785. Aided by annual subscriptions, and sermons, by legacies and donations, the benefits of the charity have been greatly extended: 100 boys and 50 girls are now clothed and educated. The management is vested in the minister of Yarmouth, and in eleven directors. The children are educated in the tenets of the Church of England. Nearly 5000 children have been brought up in this valuable institution.

Facing us at the south end of the Market is

The Savings' Bank,

a commodious building recently erected for this institution, removed from Howard Street.

Leaving the Market we enter upon Theatre Plain where stands

The Theatre.

Erected in 1778, at a cost of £1600; the interior renovated in 1828. Of its exterior the less said, the better. The interior is roomy and neatly decorated. Yarmouth forms a part of the Norwich circuit. During the palmy days of the stage, the Kembles, Keans, O'Neill, Young, Matthews, and other stars of a bye-gone generation, were wont from time to time to grace its boards.

Turning towards the sea, we pass on our left

The Wesleyan Chapel,

a plain building, erected in 1837, at a cost of £4,200, with sittings for 1,200.

*Rise of Methodism in Yarmouth, from Dawson Turner's
Sepulchral Reminiscences.*

"It was in 1783, during Mr. Taylor's first mayoralty, that John Wesley preached in Yarmouth, what I am told was his farewell sermon here, upon the opening of the Methodist Chapel in the Ferry-boat row. He, however, paid the town three subsequent visits, in 1786, 1788, and 1790, the last not five months before his death. In reference to it his Journal contains the following memorandum: 'Thursday, 14th October, 1790. I went to Yarmouth, and at length found a society in peace, and much united together. In the evening, the congregation was much too large to get into the preaching-house; but they were far less noisy than usual. After supper, a little company went to prayer; and the power of God fell upon us, especially when a young woman broke out in prayer, to the surprise and comfort of us all.' To have been able to make such an entry, the final one regarding Yarmouth, must have warmed the heart of the pious divine; for the town cannot but have been regarded by him with an interest bordering on affection, seeing that in the course of just thirty years he had seldom suffered one to pass without his presence in it. And widely different had been his experience on former occasions. The earliest attempt to establish his doctrines among us,—I am quoting from Watmough's *History of Methodism in Yarmouth*,—had been made in 1754, by a Minister of the name of Thomas Olivers, and with a promise of anything but a successful result. We learn from himself, that in venturing into one of the rows after preaching, 'the women ranged themselves in their doorways on both sides, with basins of water, and dirt, and filth in their hands the contents of which they darted at him as he passed along.' Nor did he fare better when he emerged into the open street; for there 'he was assailed with such a shower of sticks, stones, turnips, apples, potatoes, &c., as he never witnessed before or since.' A second attempt, under similar auspices but with a very different issue, was made six years subsequently, by a zealous member of the society, Mr. Howell Harris, the Captain of a Regiment of Welsh Fencibles then stationed in the town. He, to try the feeling of the inhabitants, announced by the bellman, that a Methodist preacher would, on a certain day, hold forth in the Market-Place. The notice was no sooner issued, than "stones, brick-bats, blood, filth, were instantly put in requisition; and the people seemed bent upon resistance, as if an enemy had been preparing to scale the towers.' The appearance, however, of the expected preacher in regimentals, surrounded by his soldiers, soon stilled the tumult. The populace were astonished and awe-struck; and the sermon was quietly heard, and was repeated many successive nights without interruption. Mr. Wesley was consequently invited, and on his arrival formed the first Methodist Society in Yarmouth. It was a leading principle with this great

man, that association was the soul of action. Our blessed Saviour had begun by collecting his disciples round him; and his followers could only hope for success by pursuing the example. His journal-entry on the occasion is very interesting, and is so much to the purpose, that I must be excused for quoting it, though it is rather long, and though I certainly regret that I so give fresh publicity to the first sentence.—‘Tuesday, January 20th, 1761. I enquired concerning Yarmouth, a large and populous town, and as eminent both for wickedness and ignorance as ever any seaport in England. Some had endeavoured to call them to repentance; but it was at the hazard of their lives. What could be done more? Why, last summer, God sent thither the regiment in which Howell Harris was an officer. He preached every night, none daring to oppose him; and hereby a seed was sown. Many were stirred up to seek God; and some of them now earnestly invited me to come over. I went this afternoon, and preached in the evening. The house was presently more than filled; and, instead of the tumult which was expected, all was quiet, as at London. Indeed the word of God was quick and powerful among them; as it was again at six in the morning. At eleven I preached my farewell sermon. I saw none that was not deeply affected; O fair blossoms! But, how many of these will bring forth fruit to perfection?’ Proceeding now “*per saltum*,” and leaving behind me all intervening hopes and fears, and promises and disappointments, I pass at once from this first visit of Wesley’s to that of 1783, above-mentioned. And here I have pleasure in being able to record an anecdote, at once strikingly illustrative of the preacher’s character, and nowhere, I believe, in print. The late Mr. James Hurry, then one of his hearers, is my authority for it. The subject-matter of the discourse was brought to a close, when, after a short prayer, Mr. Wesley, addressing his hearers with great earnestness said, ‘You all know what has brought me here this afternoon, and why you are called together. We have built this chapel: we need your assistance to pay for it. Our numbers are small: our pockets are low: now, there are some of you present, I know by your looks, who had intended to give us a guinea, but who, now that the time for pulling out your purses is come, are thinking that half a guinea will be enough: others, who had proposed to themselves a half-guinea, have in their hands a crown; crowns are coming down to half-crowns; shillings to sixpences: but, depend upon it, my friends, first thoughts are best: stick to them, stick to them, I beg of you; and we shall find the benefit now, and you hereafter.’ Of the result we are so far informed, that, whereas the total cost of the building, exclusively of the bricks and ground, was £315, more than a third was then raised for the purpose. The learned and excellent Adam Clarke, one of the most eminent of the Wesleyan Ministers, was likewise present on the occasion. He was at that time stationed on the Norwich Circuit; and Yarmouth

was consequently within his ministry, of the labors of which he gives the following vivid picture in a letter, to Mr. Watmough,—‘Our range included Norwich, Thurne, Yarmouth, Lowestoft, Cove, Beccles, Wheatacre, Haddiscoe, Thurlton, Heckingham, Hempnall, Loddon, Barford Hardwick, Stratton, Tasburgh, Dickleburgh, Winfarthing, North and South Lopham, and Diss; *cum multis aliis quæ nunc perscribere longum est.*’ It cost us about two hundred and fifty miles a month; and I have walked this with my saddle-bags upon my back.”

The Wesleyan Reformers, the New Connexion, and the Primitive Methodist bodies, have all chapels in Yarmouth.

Lower down the Regent Road, is

The Roman Catholic Church,

a handsome building of early perpendicular, faced with cut flints and freestone dressings. It was designed by Mr. T. A. Scoles and completed in 1850, at a cost of £10,000. It consists of a nave, having a low clerestory with quatre-foil lights, lean-to aisles, chancel, chancel chapel, sacristy, and a tower at the north-west angle. The church is 106 feet long, 44 feet wide, nave 36 feet high, and the tower about 85 feet: there is accommodation for 600 worshippers. The altar, reredos, and pulpit are elaborately carved in stone, and the whole of the decorations are in good taste. At the west end is the priests' residence, with a cloister entrance to the church.

Retracing our steps we pass by the back of the Theatre into King Street, the main thoroughfare of the town, and containing many of the principal shops. Here, continuing south, on our left is the

New Independent Chapel,

a handsome building of white brick, from the design of H. B. Kerry, erected in 1855, at a cost of £3,700. It contains sittings for 800. Facing it is

St. George's Chapel of Ease.

Erected in 1715, at the cost of the corporation. It is a red brick building of octangular shape, with steeple

and cupola. A gallery extends round three sides of the interior. The dark heavy pews on the ground floor are of wainscot. The Incumbent was formerly paid out of a tax on coals. This impost has been abolished, and £200 per annum is paid in lieu of it by the town council. The minister is the Rev. Mark Waters, M.A.

Standing on the south side of the chapel and looking down a short distance of the route he has just taken, the visitor cannot fail to be struck with the old-fashioned last century aspect the town wears at this particular point. The numerous private houses, large and ancient, with bow windows from top to bottom, of the most portly dimensions, and of solid red brick construction, have an air of warmth and comfort. The chapel surrounded with trees, is somewhat quaint and Dutch in its exterior. Here in 1330, was erected a Castle with four turrets, occupying the centre of the town. It was demolished in 1621, but "Castle Row," "Castle Yard," the "Banqueting House" occur in old deeds, relating to the property of the locality.*

Eastward, behind St. George's Chapel is

The Yarmouth Hospital,

occupying the site of one of the mounts raised during the panic of the Spanish invasion. It was completed in 1839. It has accomodation for 30 in-patients. A new wing has lately been added, by an unknown benefactor. A dispensary for out-patients is attached, 16,000 patients have been benefitted since its opening. It is maintained by subscriptions, donations, and legacies. Continuing south, we pass the line of the old Town Walls, and arrive at

* It is but a few years back that one of the largest and handsomest modern residences in Yarmouth, occupied the site of the Independent Chapel and adjacent buildings on the northern side of the Square. Erected by the late Mr. Penrice, it contained a valuable library,—and many pictures of great excellence, amongst them,—The Judgment of Paris, by RUBENS, and Lot and his Daughters, and Susannah and the Elders, by GUISO, all now in the National Gallery.

St. Peter's Church,

built 1833, at a cost of £12,000; style perpendicular, with lean-to aisles and a clerestory. The tower is about 124 feet high, and from the summit a beautiful view of the shipping in the roads and of the surrounding country can be obtained. It had four tall pinnacles, but one of these was blown down in the gale of May, 1860, destroying a portion of the roof of the church, and injuring the interior fittings, when it was thought necessary to remove the others. The interior of the church is quite plain; it contains 1,000 free sittings. An organ was erected in 1857, at a cost of £400. The minister is the Rev. B. Vaux, M.A.; value of the living, £200 per annum. St. Peter's National School, designed to accommodate 500 children, with a residence for the master, stands within a short distance to the south of the church.

In Lancaster Road, between St. Peter's Church and the sea, stands the new and picturesque little

Church of St. John,

erected for the use of the Beachmen and Fishermen of the port, a numerous and hitherto much neglected class of men. It was consecrated in April, 1858. Munificent donations were received in aid of the building,—one lady, the late Miss Maurice, assisted by her friends, presenting the handsome contribution of £500. This estimable lady dying a few months after the opening of the church, and the congregation having increased, owing to the zealous labours of the Rev. F. W. Johnson, Miss Maurice's executors added a new aisle, on the south side, as a memorial to the deceased. This aisle was completed early in 1859, and opened by Bishop Hills, shortly before his departure for British Columbia. The Rev. Mr. Johnson died in London, on the 20th of December, 1859, after only a few days' illness. By his will he bequeathed £3000 to endow the Beach and Harbour Mission. The

Rev. A. B. Crosse,* late Rector of Trimmingham, has succeeded him. So greatly has this mission prospered, and the church filled to over-flowing, that a large Iron Mission Room has been erected on the South Denes in connection with it. It was opened for divine worship on Tuesday 4th March, 1862.

Returning to King Street and continuing for a short distance our route southwards, we turn to the right to enter

Friars' Lane,

one of the oldest portions of the town, and leading to the quay. Here on the left was situated the Monastery of the Black Friars, an order founded in 1204, by St. Dominic. William of Worcester dates their in-

* In a recent number of his monthly "SEAMAN'S AND FISHERMAN'S FRIENDLY VISITOR." Mr. Crosse has given us a graphic sketch of the popularity of his little church.

"The Yarmouth Beach and Harbour Mission began its work about three years ago, under the superintendence of its good and holy Minister, Rev. F. W. Johnson, who, as most of our readers will remember, was about eighteen months ago so suddenly called to his home above. The little church of St. John's was built for the Mission, and although at first it was not attended by many seamen, and so the fine ladies and gentlemen who came to visit the seaside would occupy the seats; yet, so faithfully did he work from door to door, and ship to ship, that gradually the right sort of people soon filled the little church, and just turned out the smart dresses to go to other churches in the town; and now our Churchwarden stands at the door, and before service on Sunday some such a conversation as this takes place when he sees some fine ladies and gentlemen coming towards the church door:—

"I must ask you to be so kind as not to come to this church."

"Why may we not come?"

"Because it is exclusively for seafaring persons and their families."

"Oh! but it is such a dear little church, you must let us come."

"I am happy to tell you there is not room for you."

"What? do you mean that it is all filled with seamen's families?"

"Yes, I am glad to tell you it is."

"I am sure you can find room for us."

"No, I cannot, for it now wants a quarter of an hour to service, and the church is nearly full."

"Well, just let us peep in and see."

And then they just look in, and see row after row of men, with their wives at their sides, all beachmen, sailors, and fishermen, or such like, and so they are obliged to pass on.

After this may be seen, if it is Sunday morning, more than 250 children with their 30 or 40 teachers making their way to the little church, and when I tell you that the church is only built to hold 330 or 340, and then tell you that generally we have 500 persons at the Sunday morning and evening services, you may well wonder where we stow them all, and you can easily believe we have no room for the smart ladies; (and, by the way, sometimes we wish those wives and daughters of seamen would not dress quite so smart, and then THEY would not take up so much room.)"

troductio[n] to Yarmouth, in 1267, in the reign of Henry III. Their Conventual Church which was a sanctuary for malefactors was consumed by fire shortly before the Reformation. No remains exist to mark its exact site, but its extent and limits have been ascertained. It comprised an oblong square of six acres, bounded by the town walls on the south and east, and on the north by Friars' Lane, and extending down to the haven, as all the houses upon the quay are described to do in ancient deeds.* Part of the ruins were employed in repairing the adjacent walls. The "First Tower" and the "Blackfriars Tower" bounding the monastery precincts on the south and east, are still standing. Large stones wrought with mouldings and tracery let into the town walls are discernible. Half way down Friars' Lane, and on our right is

Gaol Street,†

formerly called Middlegate Street, up which we will retrace our steps to the north end of the town. As we traverse it, let us glance our eyes up the thickly peopled Rows‡ which lie along our route on the right hand and on the left, and the peculiar

* "The possessors of the monastery, and their immediate successors, had no more right to enclose any part of the Quay, than had the owners of the houses to the north of Friars' lane: and it is deeply to be regretted that an encroachment has been permitted which has diminished the fair proportions of one of the finest Quays in the world."—PALMER.

† At the south east corner of Gaol Street, stood until the close of last century, the old house, in which the youth of Dr. Frank Sayers was passed. He wrote of it in after days, when he had grown distinguished, in a tone of fond reminiscence. "It was a stately old fashioned mansion surrounding three sides of a gloomy court; the hall was floored with chequered marble; the large parlour was wainscoted with cedar, and a spacious staircase of shallow steps led up to the drawing room, which was a long narrow gallery including seven windows. A Flemish folding screen, covered with gilt leather, inclosed a private nook round the chimney, in which the family sat when by themselves." For an account of Dr. Sayers, see Appendix.

‡ In 1736, a Dutchman was murdered at the Turn Inn, in the Gaol Row, a house kept by Elizabeth Thompson. The actual murderer could not be discovered, and as this woman was proved to be in possession of the secret, which she obstinately refused to reveal, she was executed as an accessory. The real murderer confessed the crime on his death-bed.

features of which we have already described* (page 39). Nearly mid-way on the left is the most ancient, and in spite of modern alterations, the most curious front in Yarmouth, that of

The Tolhouse.

"It pleased King Henry III" writes Manship "by his charter granted to this township, bearing date the 28th day of September, anno 1261, in the forty-fifth year of his reign, to grant unto us a Gaol, for prisoners and malefactors, according to the laws of this land, to be imprisoned; which ever since has been continued, and is commonly called by the name of the Tolhouse.

In the hall whereof, which is the *Prætorium*, or Hall of Justice, for Yarmouth, they do weekly hold two several Courts, the one called the Borough Court, which in anno 1208 was, by our first charter of King John, amongst many other things, granted unto us,—wherein all pleas of land, complaints of debt, detinue, trespass, covenant broken, and all other accounts, whatsoever they be, between party and party, according to the orders of the common law of this realm, are to be tried.

And one other Court, called the Admiral Court, which first by our late sovereign of famous memory, Queen Elizabeth, by her charter, dated the 26th of May, anno 1559, in the first year of her reign, was granted unto the township, wherein all marine cases are to be handled."

In 1362, "the tenement with the appurtenance, called the Tolhouse" were devised by Stephen de Stalhaus to his wife Agatha. How it came into the possession of the corporation is not known, but in 1552 they ordered it to be repaired "as fast as may be." In 1622, "the great chamber at the Tolhouse hall" was appointed to be "fitted and provided for assemblies" and in 1648, it was "assigned to the commanders of the garrison soldiers, at their request, to sit together as a council of war." Here were held the courts of law during the Free Fair, and in 1612, it was the scene of a dispute for precedency between the bailiffs of the Cinque Ports, and their unwilling hosts of

* Here we will note another Dutch feature of Yarmouth, its pavements of "clinker bricks."

Yarmouth.* All the assemblies of the Town Council are now held in its hall, as also the Quarter Sessions, and Recorder's Court, and the County Court. At Michaelmas-day, when the new mayor came into office, he with the corporation attended divine service, and afterwards walked in procession with band and colours to the Town Hall. "For many years, an aged couple, named John and Betty Joblett, were accustomed to precede the mayor from church, strewing flowers in his path. After their deaths, two stuffed figures, supposed to represent them, were annually exhibited in front of the gaol, seated with a table between them, and holding bouquets of flowers. This custom was discontinued in 1835." The mayor of Yarmouth continued to preside in this hall as judge of the admiralty court, until his exclusive jurisdiction was abolished by the municipal corporation act in 1835, the last session for the trial of pirates being held in 1823. The business of the admiralty court was conducted by a registrar and four proctors. At the back of the building is the

Gaol and House of Correction.

It appears to have been an insecure place of confinement, from the escapes from it recorded at various times, and the repairs ordered to strengthen it. John Howard visited it, and in his "*State of prisons in England and Wales*" thus notices it.

"*Town Gaol.* Besides the Gaoler's House, in which are rooms for masters' side debtors, there are for felons a day room and court yard, both too close; and two lodging rooms for such as pay for them; two dungeons or night rooms, down a ladder of ten steps, one for men, the other for women. Allowance, a penny loaf a day, (weight, February 1776, 13 ounces,) four chaldrons of coal a year. They send out a begging basket three times a week. Gaoler's salary, £16. Fees 6s. 8d. No table. Clauses of act against spirituous liquors, not hung up,—1776, February 6,—debtors 6, felons &c. 14."

* Marks of considerable antiquity are still to be seen in this building: an external staircase leads to an early English doorway, having the tooth ornament on the jambs, with good mouldings and shafts; opposite to which, there is an unglazed two-light early English window, with cinque-foil heads and shafts in the jamb. In the court, another doorway leading to an interior apartment, has lately been accidentally discovered and restored: it has the tooth ornament in the arch mouldings, but not in the jambs.

The dungeons still exist, but are used as store-rooms.*

The old Bridewell stood on the site of the present Children's Hospital in the Market Place, where had formerly existed the Hospital of St. Mary.† In 1724, great alterations were made to fit it for a Workhouse, "for receiving idle wenches, and other disorderly persons." Howard briefly notices the Yarmouth Town Bridewell. "In the Workhouse

* By NEILD'S ACCOUNT OF PRISONS in 1806, it appears there was but one court-yard for all descriptions of prisoners. "Master's-side debtors" could have beds, by paying for them; "whilst common-side debtors" were forced to submit to the prison allowance in this respect. One room was set apart for the sick, "with a large iron-grated and glazed window, but no fire-place." There was not at that time a chaplain, nor any religious instruction, nor any kind of employment. In 1805, a recommendation was made, that an adjoining public-house, at the back of the gaol, should be purchased. and the bridewell consolidated; also, that the sexes should be kept separate, in courts distinct from each other; and the loathsome cells bricked up. In 1818, the Recorder having recommended the grand jury to inspect the gaol, they reported, "that no classification of the prisoners did or (from the numbers and the then condition of the gaol,) could take place." Shortly afterwards, however, the recommendation made ten years previously, was carried into effect, and the gaol was enlarged as it now exists.

† In 1598, the south part of the Hospital had been turned into a house of correction for the poor. These houses had been established in all the principal towns, for suppressing the mendicity caused by the dissolution of the monasteries, throwing upon the country a host of vagrant beggars, together with the monks and friars who had heretofore relieved their wants with indiscriminate alms. How they were corrected, may be gleaned from the rules drawn up at Bury St. Edmunds, in 1599.

By the regulations then made, "every strange and sturdie roage, at his or her first coming into the said house," was to have "xij stripes upon his beare skynne, with the whipp provided for the said house; and every yong roage or idle loyterer, vj stripes with the said whipp, in forme aforesaid;" and "every one of them, without fayle, at his fyrst comminge into the said house, shall have putt upon hym or her, some clogge cheine, collar of iron, ringle or manacle, such as the keeper of the said house shall thinke meete;" and "all unrulle and stubborne persons shall be corrected oft'ner, and used both with HARDER cloggs, &c., and with THINNER diett and harder labour, untill he or she be brought to reasonable obedience." In ancient times, the poor were in fact, entirely confined to the clergy: a relic of which remains to this day; for churchwardens are still, by virtue of their office, overseers of the poor of the ecclesiastical district for which they serve. Before the dissolution, each monastery had its poor-house or alms-house, with a relieving officer, called *ELERMOSINARIUS*, or the almoner, whose duty it was to visit the sick at their put-houses, and there to relieve them.

In 1625, December 29, an order was made that no poor people should be married without first procuring the permission of the alderman and chief constable of the ward in which they lived. In 1648, rates of extraordinary amount had to be levied in Yarmouth for the relief of the poor. And "in regard to the great dearness of victuals and hardness of the times," the magistrates then determined to transport "such idle boys, girls, wenches, and fellows, as could not be brought to any orderlye course, to the BYRMOODIES, or other new plantations."—*ABBREGED FROM PALMER.*

yard. Four rooms, a fire-place in one of them. No water." In 1842, these buildings were demolished. The Bridewell was transferred to the Gaol, and a new Workhouse was erected on the North Denes.

The present Gaol has been enlarged and improved, as much probably, as its very faulty original structure will allow. The situation is confined, and its lofty walls and narrow passages restrict the circulation of air and light.

Those whom feelings of either deep interest and admiration, or mere curiosity have led to visit this scene of a life-long self sacrifice, will best appreciate the labours of Sarah Martin, the prison visitor of Yarmouth, after having breathed its close and depressing atmosphere.

Few modern biographies have appeared before the public in so many varied channels, from the pages of our quarterlies down to the cheap selections for cottage readers, distributed by our colporteurs and book hawkers,—as the life of this humble woman, Familiar as our readers may be with its outlines, no Guide Book to Yarmouth will deserve its name which does not offer a tributary notice to her worth.*

She was born in 1791, and left an orphan at an early age. Her residence was at Caister, three miles from Yarmouth, where she lived with an aged grandmother, and whence she walked to Yarmouth and back again in the prosecution of her daily avocation. She was a poor dressmaker! a little woman of gentle, quiet manners, possessing no beauty of person, nor as it seemed any peculiar endowment of mind. To excel in whatsoever she undertook, was a necessity of her nature, and she was distinguished for taste and neatness, as a sempstress. A passion for reading, aided by a retentive memory, had stored her mind with passages from the English classics, and while sewing, or when her day's work was done, she would recite quotations from our best Poets to the children of the families where she was employed. Through life she was characterised by a warm and loving disposition, a fondness

* The accompanying memoir of Sarah Martin is mainly derived from two sources,—her life and letters published by the Religious Tract Society; and an article in the Edinburgh Review; a few lines are taken from "Our Exemplars." Her Notes upon the prison inmates have been selected after a personal examination of her journals deposited in the Town Library, and these extracts, so far as the writer is aware, appear in print for the first time.

for children and animals. At the time she first felt that impulse which absorbed the whole of her future life, she was twenty-eight years old, and had for thirteen years past, earned her livelihood by going out to the houses of various families as a day labourer in the business of dressmaking. She has related that "one fine summer morning (when in her nineteenth year) she walked for pleasure from her village of Caister to Great Yarmouth, and from mere curiosity entered the house of God. The preacher—the Rev. William Walford—announced for his text the words, "we persuade men" 2 Cor. v. 11.; by means of the sermon then preached "the Spirit of God sent a ray of light upon her guilty soul, slave of Satan, fast bound in misery and woe." From this time forward she felt the love of Christ constraining her to devotion and benevolence, and not waiting till some great scheme of well-doing presented itself, began at once her labours in "the duty that was nearest to her." Her only day of rest, after the labours of the week, was devoted to the task of teaching in a Sunday School. She now commenced, and for eight and twenty years continued to visit the inmates of the Workhouse, and read the Scriptures to the aged and sick. The effect of the impure air on a constitution which had never been strong, compelled her at last to relinquish this labour, but only to adopt another, less injurious to her health, the instruction of the pauper children.

It is however in connection with the gaol of Yarmouth, that her name is most identified. The state of things which existed there "down to 1819, and even much later," has been described in her life, and in the reports of the Inspectors of Prisons. "There was no school-master, no chaplain, no attempt at occupation or reformation," the doors were simply locked upon the prisoners their time was given to gaming, playing, fighting, and bad language, and their visitors were admitted from without, with little restriction. "There was no divine worship in the gaol on Sundays, nor any respect paid to that holy day. There were under-ground cells, (even down to 1836,) quite dark, and deficient in proper ventilation. The prisoners describe their heat in summer as almost suffocating, but they prefer them for their warmth in winter; their situation is such as to defy inspection, and they are altogether unfit for the confinement of any human being." Even as long back as 1816, "whilst frequently passing it, (she wrote in after life,) I felt a strong desire to obtain admission to the prisoners to read the Scriptures to them, for I thought much of their condition, and of their sin before God, how they were shut out from society, whose rights they had violated, and how destitute they were of the scriptural instruction which alone could meet their unhappy circumstances." In 1819, an unnatural mother was committed to gaol for cruelly beating her own child. Sarah Martin's heart was uncontrollably moved to visit her. She went to the gaol, passed into the dark porch which

overhung the entrance,—fit emblem of the state of things within,—and in a timid form of application, uttered with that clear and gentle voice, the sweet tones of which are yet well remembered, solicited permission to see the prisoner. She was repulsed, but on a second attempt admitted. She has told us with touching simplicity, the story of her reception. The woman “was surprised at the sight of a stranger,” when I told her the motive of my visit, her guilt, her need of God’s mercy &c., she burst into tears, and thanked me. Those tears and thanks shaped the whole course of Sarah Martin’s subsequent life, “I read to her,” she adds “the 23rd chapter of St. Luke,” the story of the malefactor who although suffering justly from man’s judgment, found mercy from the Saviour. Received at first with hesitation and dislike she soon acquired an extraordinary influence over the minds of the prisoners. For a few months she regularly read the Scriptures with them, but familiarity with their wants and with her own powers, led her to enlarge her sphere of tuition and she began to instruct them in reading and writing. This extension of her labour interfered with her ordinary occupations. It became necessary to sacrifice a portion of her time, and consequently of her means to these new duties. She did not hesitate. “I thought it right” she says “to give up a day in a week from dressmaking to serve the prisoners. This regularly given with many an additional one, was not felt as a pecuniary loss, but was even followed with abundant satisfaction, for the blessing of God was upon me.”

Her next object was to secure the observance of the Sabbath; and, after long urging and remonstrance, at length she prevailed upon the prisoners to form a “Sunday service,” by one reading to the rest. “But aware,” she observes, “of the instability of a practice, in itself good, without any corresponding principle of preservation, and thinking that my presence might exert a beneficial influence, I joined their Sunday morning worship as a regular hearer.”

After three years’ perseverance in this “happy and quiet course,” as she terms it, perceiving that idleness in the prison, as well as out of it, was a fruitful source of vice, she sought to devise plans to employ, first the female prisoners, and afterwards the men. In 1823, one gentleman gave her ten shillings, and another, in the same week, a pound, for prison charity. It then occurred to her that she could profitably expend it in materials for baby-clothes, to be made by the prisoners and sold for their benefit. She did so. Then she borrowed patterns, cut out the materials, fixed the prices for making the various articles, and ascertained the cost of a set, so that they might be sold at a profit. The plan took amazingly. Shirts, coats, and other garments were made. By this means many of the women were taught to sew, and had a little money at the expiration of the term of their imprisonment.

"The fund of £1 10s. for this purpose," she states, "as a foundation and perpetual stock (for whilst desiring its preservation I did not require its increase,) soon rose to seven guineas; and since its establishment, above £408 worth of various articles have been sold for charity."

The men were now likewise employed. Some of them made straw hats, and at a later period bone spoons and seals, while others made caps for men and boys, the materials (old cloth or moreen) for the purpose being obtained from her friends. In some instances young men, and more frequently boys, learnt to sew grey cotton shirts, or even patchwork, with a view of shutting out idleness and making themselves useful.

After another interval she proceeded to the foundation of a fund, which she applied to the furnishing of work for prisoners upon their discharge, "affording me" she adds, "the advantage of observing their conduct at the same time."

She had thus, in the course of a few years, during which her mind had gradually expanded to the requirements of the subject before her, provided for all the most important subjects of prison discipline, moral and intellectual tuition, occupation during imprisonment, and employment after discharge. Whilst great and good men at a distance, unknown to her, were inquiring and disputing as to the way and the order in which these very results were to be attained,—here was a poor woman, who was actually herself personally accomplishing them all. She had to contend with many difficulties that are now unknown: prison discipline was then in its infancy; everything she did was conceived in the best spirit; and considering the time and the means at her command, could scarcely have been improved. The full extent to which she was personally engaged in carrying out these objects, has yet to be explained. The Sunday Service, in the gaol was adopted, as we have seen, upon her recommendation, and she joined the prisoners as a fellow worshipper on the Sunday morning. Their evening service which was to be read in her absence, was soon abandoned: finding that to be the case, she attended on that part of the day also, and the service was then resumed. "After several changes of readers," she says, "the office devolved on me, that happy privilege, thus graciously opened to me, and embraced from necessity and in much fear, was acceptable to the prisoners, for God made it so, and also an unspeakable advantage and comfort to myself.

These two Sunday services were continued for twelve years, till, in 1831, failing strength compelled the relinquishment of one of them; and her place was supplied by a Christian minister. From the commencement of her Sunday labours, which began probably in 1820, up to 1832, she read printed sermons; from that time to 1837, she wrote her own sermons; from 1837 to the termination of her labours in 1843, "I was enabled," she says,

“by the grace of God, to address the prisoners without writing before hand, simply from the Holy Scriptures.”

The report of a Prison Inspector will probably convey a better idea of these services than Sarah Martin's own modest statement. Captain Williams writes:—“Sunday, November 29, 1835. Attended divine service in the morning in the prison. The male prisoners only were assembled; a female, resident in the town, officiated; her voice was exceedingly melodious, her delivery emphatic, and her enunciation extremely distinct. The service was the liturgy of the church of England; two psalms were sung by the whole of the prisoners, and extremely well, much better than I have frequently heard in our best appointed churches. A written discourse, of her own composition, was read by her. During the performance of the service, the prisoners paid the profoundest attention and the most marked respect, and, as far as it is possible to judge, appeared to take a devout interest. Evening service was read by her afterwards to the female prisoners.”

In the year 1826 her grandmother died, and Sarah Martin came into possession of an annual income of £10 or £12.

She then removed from Caister to Yarmouth, where she occupied two rooms in a house situated in an obscure part of the town, and from that time devoted herself, with increased energy, to her philanthropic labours. “But dressmaking, like other professions, is a jealous mistress;” customers fell off, and eventually almost disappeared. A question of anxious moment now presented itself, the determination of which is one of the most characteristic and memorable incidents in her life. Was she to pursue her benevolent labours, even although they led to utter poverty? Her little income was not more than enough to pay her lodging, and the expenses consequent upon the exercise of her charitable functions; and was actual destitution of ordinary necessities to be submitted to? She never doubted. But her reasoning on the subject must be stated in her own words:—“In the full occupation of dress-making, I had care with it and anxiety for the future; but as that disappeared, care fled also. God, who had called me into the vineyard, had said, ‘Whatsoever is right I will give you.’ I had learned from the Scriptures of truth that he should be supported; God was my Master, and would not forsake his servant. He was my Father, and would not forget his child. I knew, also, that it sometimes seemed good in His sight to try the faith and patience of His servants, by bestowing upon them very limited means of support—as in the case of Naomi and Ruth, of the widow of Zarephath and Elijah—and my mind in the contemplation of such trials, *seemed exalted by more than human energy; for I had counted the cost, and my mind was made up. If, whilst imparting truth to others, I became exposed to temporal want, the privation, so momentary to an individual, would not admit of comparison with following the Lord in thus administering to others.*”

She now took her station amongst the prisoners for 6 or 7 hours daily, converting that which, without her, would have been at best a scene of dissolute idleness, into a hive of industry and order. "Any one who could not read I encouraged to learn, whilst others in my absence assisted them. They were taught to write also; while such as could write already, copied extracts from books lent to them. Prisoners who were able to read, committed verses from the Holy Scriptures to memory, every day, according to their ability or inclination. I, as an example, also committed a few verses to memory, to repeat to them every day, and the effect was remarkable; always silencing excuse, when the pride of some prisoners would have prevented their doing it. Many said, at first, 'it would be of no use,' and my reply was, 'It is of use to me, and why should it not be so to you? You have not tried it, but I have.'"

Her philanthropic labour left her scant time for study, she preferred therefore to confine herself to the fountain head, and read little else than her Bible, this she went through four times a year, making comments. Charity was an eminent quality of her mind; thus, if she heard the failings of others discussed, she would say, "We had better not talk about them, but pray for them."

After the close of her labours at the gaol, she proceeded at one period of her life, to the school which she superintended at the workhouse; and afterwards, when that school was turned over to proper teachers, she devoted two nights in the week to a school for factory girls, which was held in the capacious chancel of the old church of St. Nicholas. Other teachers would send their classes to stand by and listen, whilst Sarah Martin, in her striking and effective way, imparted instruction to the forty or fifty young women who were fortunate enough to be more especially her pupils. Every countenance was riveted upon her; and, as the questions went round, she would explain them by a piece of poetry, or an anecdote, which she had always ready at command, and, more especially, by Scripture illustration.

The evenings on which there was no tuition were devoted by her to visiting the sick, either in the workhouse, or through the town generally. And occasionally an evening was passed with some of those worthy people in Yarmouth by whom her labours were regarded with interest. Belonging by birth and education to a humble rank, there was no trace of vulgarity in her demeanour. As her character became known, she was received as an honoured guest in the upper circles of society, where the simplicity and self-possession of her manner made her perfectly at ease. Her appearance in any of their houses was the signal of a busy evening. Her benevolent smile, and quick, active manner, communicated her own cheerfulness and energy to every one around her. She never failed to bring work with her; and, if

young people were present, she was sure to employ them all. Something was to be made ready for the occupation of the prisoners, or for their instruction; patterns or copies were to be prepared, or old materials to be adjusted to some new use, in which last employment her ingenuity was pre-eminent.

Her day was closed by no "return to a cheerful fireside prepared by the cares of another," but to her solitary apartments, which she left locked up during her absence, and where "most of the domestic offices of life were performed by her own hands." There she kept a record of her proceedings in reference to the prisoners, notes of their character and conduct during their confinement, and sometimes after their release. The journals in which these interesting notes are written, together with note books containing exact accounts of the income and expenditure of the little subscriptions she received, are now deposited in the Public Library of Great Yarmouth. No one can examine these brief memoranda,—evidently never intended for the public eye, without being struck with the special and remarkable fitness she exhibits for her singular sphere of duty. Whilst full of compassion and pity, the character of each prisoner is frequently clearly traced in a few words, sharp, terse, and unflinching. Here are one or two examples :—

J. C., one of the very worst, foolish, hardened, idle, lazy, and destitute of the wish to improve. In prison,—a corrupter.

J. B., age 14,—for trial, read and write,—clever, shrewd, impudent, liar, thief.

W. D., 25,—debtor,—remarkably ignorant,—very destitute of principle,—full of cant and pretence,—bad temper,—hypocrite,—weak mind.

This man requested to be taught, and Sarah Martin began, but remarks,—“I am not accustomed to teach debtors. It is a vain attempt to instruct them. Their constant visitors upset everything that is good.”

C. P., 13,—attempted felony,—one month,—mild in manners and temper, affectionately docile,—of very good common capacity,—no mother,—father absent,—at lodgings,—left to himself,—nothing to do,—poor,—neglected.

Walter L., 10,—attempting felony,—one month,—knows the alphabet only,—A NEGLECTED CHILD,—QUITE A CHILD,—his father a labourer with a large family,—his mother works at a fish office,—neglected.

Walter T., 16,—attempted felony,—one month. Impetuous in temper, angry in a moment,—interfering with the other four young boys, noisy, quick in movement, rapid in speech and utterance,—defective in memory,—would never repeat what was taught, correctly,—unable on his departure, to remember all the letters of the alphabet,—sensitive in feeling,—forgiving.

This boy with the other four alluded to, appear to have peculiarly interested Sarah Martin. A large space in her diary is devoted to watching their traits of character, and to the efforts she made to teach and reform them. There seem to have been some complex elements in the disposition of this boy. After his discharge, and as she foreboded, he speedily re-entered the prison walls for felony—and we have a second study of his character.

“Bad boy, small of his age, restless habits, cannot sit or stand quietly a minute at a time, hasty, forward of manner, pretending to be useful,—but obsequious and hypocritical,—never discovers temper when reproved most

strongly,—but bad in disposition to others. With a remarkable appearance of quickness, I have found it quite impossible to get him to remember the alphabet.”

C. R., 15,—carting sand off the Denes,—no education.—The case of this child is truly pitiable, a nice boy, so docile and ready to learn and obey, yet neglected, ignorant, and wretched he must be, and worse and worse he must become, whilst nothing short of absolute removal from his parents could prevent that ruin. The state of filth and vermin in which the family lives, prevent my recommending him to a Sunday School.

William H., 15,—for trial,—reads,—tried,—guilty,—sentence,—six months, neglected boy,—bad eyesight, diligent, temper not amiss, with strong feelings I advised him, and before leaving the prison, hoped that all was right. The moment he appeared on the outside of the prison doors, he was met by a number of his old companions. I went out and watched him, and there ended my intention to furnish him a herring basket. He called on me,—I could not venture a trial.

I always find the worst of convicts thoughtful before their departure, and softened. The most inaccessible minds, then become accessible. Such was the case with those who departed to-day. And as usual, this fresh state of feeling which was produced and prevailed before they left the prison walls, was at an end when they appeared in the street. It was then subverted by the influence of the herd around them, exciting them to laugh and shout. There, were their former companions the thieves of the place, whose influence was as the repetition of a death-blow, whilst that evil,—the mad joyous feeling which they excited in the convicts,—reflected back on them,—removed all terror which the example ought to have produced; so that instead of being by the sight deterred from crime, a different effect may be expected.

Many interesting details are given of prisoners successfully reclaimed by her active benevolence, to subsequent lives of usefulness. Sarah Martin governed these people and reformed them not merely by instructing them in useful acts and inculcating in their minds right principles of duty and actions, and informing their understandings as to their real interests, but more especially by opening her own heart to them, by entering with warm and genuine sympathy into their real feelings and condition, and by aiding them in devising and carrying out measures of practical amelioration suited to their circumstances, and their habits of thought and feeling. The journal entitled “Liberated Prisoners” tells the tale of her indefatigable and persevering energy, and her self-denying benevolence towards her fellow creatures. The prisoners when liberated, were far from being off her hands; if there appeared the smallest promise of reformation she sought to cherish it by keeping the individual in sight; she would follow them to their houses, surprise them at their work, seek out a respectable lodging for the houseless, or for those whose home was a hot-bed of crime; she would entreat a master to admit a servant to his former employment, and persuade others to make trial of some delinquent of whom she thought well; the juvenile offenders were presented to the superintendents of Sunday Schools for admission, and the regularity of their attendance inquired into; she would write to the distant parents of a liberated prisoner, to beg them to receive the returning prodigal, and encouragement was given to the sailor to call upon her on his return from the voyage. All

these labours of twenty-four years were not executed by a committee, but by an individual of a constitution not robust, and working for her daily bread.

All this time Sarah Martin continued to live on the merest pittance, and in a condition of absolute poverty. Friends occasionally supplied her wants by little presents of food and clothing; but unless it was specially noted that the presents were *not* for her "charities," they were invariably given away to those who were more destitute than herself. Some members of the corporation were desirous that she should receive help from the borough funds, but she so steadfastly opposed the project that it was soon laid aside. In 1841, however, it became apparent to some excellent ladies who sympathized with her in her manifold toils, that her health was giving way. The proposal was therefore renewed. But still she would not consent to it. Her scruples may have been excessive, but her motives were pure and exalted. The inmates of the gaol felt that she was among them, taught them, toiled for them, not because she was paid to do so, but because she pitied and loved them. If she received a salary they might regard her henceforward as a mere gaol functionary, and rank her with the turn-keys and others who got their living by the duties which they discharged. "To try the experiment, which might injure the thing I live and breathe for, seems like applying a knife to your child's throat, to know if it will cut. As for my circumstances, I have not a wish ungratified, and am more than content." The feelings which actuated this self-denying friend of the fallen were so far respected, that nothing worthy the name of a salary was awarded to her. The insignificant sum of twelve pounds a year was appropriated to her use, and sufficed to provide for her few and humble wants, while it left her all that she ever was to the prisoners—their voluntary friend, and not their paid teacher. "My peace was restored," she says, "in the consciousness that money was no part of my object; and when I saw the measure carried forward without my knowledge or concurrence, by the secret providence of God, I felt it a privilege to acquiesce and be thankful."

Her life and labours were now drawing to a close. In the winter of 1842, her health began to fail, and it was with pain and difficulty that she continued day by day up to the 17th April, 1843, to visit the gaol, "the home" she says, "of my first interest and pleasure." From that day, she was confined to her apartments by a painful disease, accompanied by extreme bodily weakness "continued pain forbidding sleep, mocking at anodynes" was her portion for months. But nothing could repress the energy of her mind, or dim the happiness of her soul. In the seclusion of a solitary chamber apart from all that could disturb, and in a universe of calm repose and peace and love: when speaking of herself and her condition, she remarked in words of singular beauty,

———"I seem to lie
 So near the heavenly portals bright,
 I catch the streaming rays that fly
 From eternity's own light;"—

A few minutes before her death, she begged for more of the opiate to still the racking torture. The nurse told her that she believed the time of her departure had arrived. She, clapping her hands together exclaimed "Thank God! Thank God!" and never spake more. Her property she bequeathed to the British and Foreign Bible Society. She was buried at Caister by the side of her grandmother and a tomb-stone in the churchyard bears a simple inscription, written by herself, which commemorates her death and age, but says not a word of her many virtues.* A handsome memorial window of stained glass, raised by subscription, has been placed in the west window of the north aisle of St. Nicholas' church. The late Bishop of Norwich, Dr. Stanley, was one of those invited to subscribe, and as he gave his contribution, he remarked, "I would canonise Sarah Martin, if I could." The memorial window has four compartments—The charge to Peter, "Feed my Lambs,"—The Good Samaritan—Peter released from Prison—Death of Dorcas. The inscription runs at foot "To the honour of God. This window was set up in memory of one of His faithful servants, Sarah Martin, born 1791, died 1843."

Thus did a humble sempstress, without wealth, without social influence, with little education, working for many years unseen and unknown, effect a great revolution in one of the common prisons of her country, solving practically some of the most difficult questions of prison discipline, and weaning back many wanderers to virtue and to God. There was nothing eccentric in her character, or modes of acting. That she was singularly good was her only singularity. There was no attempt at effect in any of her arrangements, no desire to thrust herself on public notice, and no effort to evade it.

"The high desire that others may be blest,
 Savours of heaven,"

are her own words, and her life was the best comment upon them. "Her simple, unostentatious, yet energetic devotion to the interests of the outcast and the destitute," remarks Captain Williams, one of the Inspectors of prisons, who had many opportunities of judging of her labours, and whose experience gives great value to his testimony—"her gentle disposition, her temper never irritated by disappointment, nor her charity straitened by ingratitude, present a combination of qualities which imagination sometimes portrays as the ideal of what is pure and beautiful, but which are rarely found embodied with humanity. . . . She was no titular sister of charity, but was silently felt and

* "I. Corinthians xv, 20. In memory of Sarah Martin, who slept in Jesus, October 15, 1843, aged 52 years. I. Corinthians xv, 49 and 53 verses,"

acknowledged to be one, by the many outcast and destitute persons who received encouragement from her lips, and relief from her hands, and by the few who were witnesses of her good works."

A little further north, and nearly facing "Kitty Witches" Row, is

The Unitarian Chapel,

a Gothic structure of white brick, standing on ground once the property of the Monastery of Grey Friars. The present chapel was erected in 1845, on the site of the "old Meeting House," originally owned by the Independents. Here is preserved the portrait of a minister of some celebrity in his day, William Bridge.* During the commonwealth, Bridge officiated at St. Nicholas, jointly with Brinsley, Allen, and Tookie, "in sweet accord." Bridge was one of the five pillars of the Independent or Congregational party, who were distinguished by the name of the Dissenting Brethren in the Westminster Assembly of Divines. He was a frequent preacher before the Long Parliament. At the Restoration he and his congregation were ejected from St. Nicholas, and an entry in their "Church Book" records that November 1, 1661, "the keys of the Meeting House were sent for to the bailiffs, and delivered to Sir Thomas Medowe, and the vestry door nayled up."†

* "Bridge was a student at Cambridge for about thirteen years—became a fellow of Emmanuel college—and was a minister in Essex for five years, before settling at Norwich. The following account of him is from a friendly pen. 'He was no mean scholar; had a library well furnished with the fathers, schoolmen, critics, and most authors of worth. He was a very hard student; rose at four o'clock in the morning, winter and summer, and continued in his study till eleven o'clock: and many souls heartily blessed God for his labours.'" See also page 87.

• The number of these churches was proportionally much greater in the two counties of Norfolk and Suffolk, than in most other parts of the kingdom. This was owing to the particular intercourse which those counties have with the city of Rotterdam, and Holland, where the most rigid Puritans who were driven out of England by the severities of the times before the civil wars began, had taken refuge and formed several congregational churches. On the return of the English exiles to England, at the commencement of those dissensions, they brought back with them their sentiments on church government, and formed churches on the Independent plan. Of these, the most ancient was the church of Yarmouth, consisting of members

The Grey Friars settled here about 1270, and soon acquired considerable possessions, extending westward from the river to Middle Gate Street, and from Row 83, to Row 96, north and south. On the space now occupied by Queen Street, stood the Conventual Church, with cloisters on the south, portions of which may still be traced,—the springing of the arches in the cellars, and the rich groined roof, in the cottages adjoining. They enclosed a "green yard" extending to a wall still standing behind some modern cottages in Row 95, where some stone mouldings and mullions of the Conventual buildings may be seen. On the east side of Middle Gate Street, stood a lofty hall facing the Grey Friars Church, and which was not pulled down until after 1770. At the dissolution, the convent with all its buildings, orchards, and gardens, were granted to Cromwell, Earl of Essex. He enjoyed them but a few months. Losing the King's favour, he was beheaded, and the lands were given to his nephew Sir Richard Williams, who took the name of Cromwell, and was the great grandfather of the Protector. In 1569, they appear to have passed into the hands of the corporation. In 1575, the chamberlains were ordered "to let out" the numerous rooms of the Grey Friars, and the people were permitted to carry away the stones of the ruined church. During the civil wars, part of the grounds were used as an exercising place for the trained bands; part as an artillery yard. In 1655, in consequence of the town debts incurred by losses at sea, from pirates and enemies, an order was made for the sale of the grounds, no portion unhappily being reserved for any public purpose.

resident at that town and at Norwich, and the Lord's Supper was administered alternately at the two places. This, after a time, was found very troublesome, and by a majority of votes, the seat of the church was fixed at Yarmouth. This new arrangement was attended with great inconvenience to those who lived at Norwich. They therefore with the consent of the other part at Yarmouth, founded a separate church, June 10, 1644. This consent was given with expressions of the most tender and endeared affection, as having been many of them "companions together in the patience of our Lord Jesus, in their own, and in a strange land, and having long enjoyed sweet communion together in divine ordinances."—NOTE TO NEALE'S HISTORY OF THE PURITANS, 1837 ED.

Adjoining the Gaol Street Independent Chapel, are the Independent Sunday Schools, erected in 1847.

We now emerge upon the quay at the back of the Town Hall. Having already described this portion of the town, we will continue our route passing the bridge and along the north quay. Here are situate the stores of the great local brewers, Sir E. Lacon and Sons, and Steward, Patteson and Co., whose Ales are becoming an important export. Facing the Iron Bridge leading to the Eastern Counties Railway, is a wide opening lined with small antiquated dwellings, known as

The Conge.

Before the North or Grubbs' Haven choked up, this was probably the centre of the town, and the chief seat of business. Here the dues were paid, and permits to sail issued. Manship the elder thus speaks of it.

"Be yt remembered, that noe maner of person, durenge the tyme of the rule and government of the provoste of Yarmouth, durste presume to discharge or land onye fishe, herringes, or other gooddes, or m'rchandizes, but first he must have leave and license from the said provoste so to doe, and for the same muste paye unto the said provoste certain duties, as well for the thinges dischargd, as for all maner of thinges laden and carried from thense. And then the shippes and vesselles did arrive and come for that purpose, to a certain place called the *Congee*, wch is yet knowen by evidence to be in the north ende of the said towne at this daye. The said Congee, beinge a French word, is in Englishe, leave or licence, so as all men resorted thither to have leave of the provoste to lade and unlade, &c.; and after their dues paid, the provoste gave them leave to sayle to ye city of Norwich, or to other places."

On our right is the new

Church of St. Andrew,

for Wherrymen, consecrated on the 9th October, 1860, by the Lord Bishop of Norwich, built in the early English style, with nave, aisle, and semi-circular apse. The roof is open and highly decorated (blue ground, studded with gold stars and Maltese crosses.) The walls are of red brick, faced with white stone, the columns of white stone also, with sculptured capitals, representing water lilies, bulrushes, and river weeds,

indicating the calling of those for whose use the building is erected. The floor of the chancel is laid with encaustic tiles. The stone pulpit, the font, and communion service, were presented by a much-esteemed lady, resident in Yarmouth, whose munificence is well known. The organ was given by Miss Burdett Coutts, who also subscribed liberally to the erection of the church. There are some good stained-glass windows, that over the communion table being exceedingly appropriate. The church accomodates 400 adults, besides children. Mr. C. E. Giles, of London, was the architect. Thanks to the unwearied labours of the Minister of this church, its area is already far too small to accomodate the families of the classes for whose especial benefit it was erected. A large building, formerly a brothel, has been opened for additional religious services: Schools, a Penny Bank, Refreshment and Reading Rooms, and other appliances for the benefit of the poor have been opened, and are conducted by this gentleman with the energy of one who has blotted the word 'failure' out of his vocabulary.

Facing us on the River Bure, is a suspension bridge, the scene of a fearful tragedy, May 2, 1845. The clown of a circus had advertised to sail down the river drawn in a tub by geese, and the spectators crowded upon the bridge, which had shortly before been widened. Owing to a flaw in a link of one of the suspension chains,—the south side of the bridge suddenly gave way, and nearly 400 persons were precipitated into the river. Seventy-nine perished, many who were rescued never perfectly recovered from the shock. A new bridge has re-placed the former one.

A few steps further is the North West Tower, the last constructed portion of the fortifications. It forms a most picturesque feature in the scenery of this end of Yarmouth, viewed either from the meadows or the Breydon Water. The course of the old wall may be followed here for a considerable distance.

The Row running from the gateway is called Rampart Walk, or Ramp Row, and contains some almshouses belonging to the town. We retrace our steps and turning up the north side of the New Church, ascend Fuller's Hill. Tradition asserts this to have been the first dry land of Yarmouth, and to have been colonised by a family of fishermen, who gave to it their own cognomen. We pass out upon the Church Plain, and continuing north, along the Caister Road, arrive at the Parish Workhouse, built in 1838, at a cost of £7,500, and intended to accomodate 400 inmates. The amount of poor's rates in 1861, was £17,908 5s. 8d. the average quarterly rate being 16d. in the pound.*

On the North Denes, east of St. Nicholas' Church, are the Silk Mills of Messrs. Grout and Co., employing upwards of 1000 women and girls in Silk and Crape manufacture.

We have now traversed the town along its main arteries from north to south, and back again. We have sought to describe as we moved on its most striking features. We have also dwelt upon those details of its past history most likely to interest our readers, selecting such as would most vividly bring up before them the byegone generations of this ancient town. Leaving our notices of Southtown and Gorleston to form a portion of our rambles in the environs, let us adjourn to the Sea Side, and contemplate Yarmouth in its latest development,—that of a modern watering place.

* In 1817, the average rate for the four quarters was 6s. 4d. in the pound, but amounted in one quarter, to 9s. in the pound.

III.

THE SEA BEACH.

"Turn to the watery world!—but who to thee
(A wonder yet unview'd) shall paint the sea?
Various and vast, sublime in all its forms,
When lull'd by zephyrs, or when roused by storms,
Its colours changing, when from clouds and sun
Shades after shades upon the surface run;
Embrown'd and horrid now, and now serene,
In limpid blue, and evanescent green;
And oft the foggy banks on ocean lie;
Lift the fair sail, and cheat th' experienced eye.
Be it the summer noon : a sandy space
The ebbing tide has left upon its place ;

Then the broad bosom of the ocean keeps
An equal motion ; swelling as it sleeps,
Then slowly sinking ; curling to the strand,
Faint, lazy waves o'ercreep the ridgy sand,
Or tap the tarry boat with gentle blow,
And back return in silence, smooth and slow,
Ships in the calm seem anchor'd ; for they glide
On the still sea, urged solely by the tide :
Art thou not present, this calm scene before,
Where all beside is pebbly length of shore,
And far as eye can reach, it can discern no more ?"—CRABBE.

"Strangest of all are the revolutions along the coast. Our Seaport towns have been turned inside out. So infallible and unchanging are the attractions of the ocean, that it is enough for any place to stand on the shore. That one recommendation is sufficient. Down comes the Excursion Train with its thousands—some with a month's range, others tethered to a six hour's limit, but all rushing with one impulse to the water's edge. Where are they to lodge? The old 'town' is perhaps half-a-mile inland, and turned as far away from the sea as possible, for the fishermen who built it were by no means desirous of always looking at the sea, or having the salt spray blowing in at their windows. They got as far back as they could, and nestled in the cliffs or behind the hill for the sake of shelter and repose. But this does not suit Visitors, whose eyes are always on the waves, and so a new town rises on the beach. Marine Terraces, Sea Villas, "Prospect Lodges," Belle Vues, Hotels, Baths, Libraries and Churches soon accumulate, till at length the old borough is completely hidden, and perhaps only to be reached in an omnibus."—TIMES, August 30, 1860.

Judging from the figures of the last census, and the more striking indications visible in the long rows of terraces, and lodging houses which have sprung up

during the last ten years, to few places will the passage at our head, apply with greater force than to Yarmouth. As curiously illustrating the change that has lately come over the English nation, and which our anonymous writer has so pleasantly described,—that impulse, which, like the instinct of the herring, annually conducts our countrymen in shoals to our shores each successive autumn, we find in the “*Tour through Great Britain*” published early last century, and which contains an eulogistic description of Yarmouth, the following lament. “The greatest defect of this beautiful town seems to be, that though it is very rich, and increasing in wealth and trade, and consequently in people, there is not room to enlarge it by new buildings; being precluded on the west and south sides by the river, and on the east side by the sea.” So lightly esteemed was that sea view which now doubles the value of a lodging house, and those Denes on which a new and stately town is rising.

Compared with the mushroom watering places of to-day, Yarmouth is a sea side resort of very respectable antiquity. Manship, after gravely debating whether those towns seated to the north and east be more wholesome than those to the south and west, gives judgment in favour of the East.

“The reason is, for that the first light of heaven, and the first rising of the sun, is from the east; which, therefore, first in the east doth disperse the mists and vapours from off the earth, whereby it purgeth and cleanseth the air; and the beams of the sun following, do make all things fruitful and pleasant. And, as Constantine saith, east winds be wholesome in the beginning of the day, for they come of air that is subtile and temperate; and that the air of east lands and countries is clear and pure, and also dry and temperate, between cold and moist; therefore, such a wind maketh waters clear, and of a good savour, and they keep and save bodies in health by temperature of their quality: also rivers and streams that run eastward, and enter into the east sea, be better and more wholesome, and more clear, than the others; for by meeting of east winds and by beating and rebounding of the sun in his rising, waters be made clean and clear. But to ground neither upon astrologers, astronomers, or cosmographers, the very word of God approveth it: for Paradise, or the garden of

Eden, where our first parents were placed, and the land of promise which did flow with milk and honey, are said to be seated in the east. Now, this town of Yarmouth being built north and south, in the whole longitude thereof, doth spread itself directly alongst the east, taking thereby, as it were, a full possession of the benefit before remembered. It must needs, therefore, be concluded that Yarmouth is a town as wholesome for situation, as any town in this kingdom. For further confirmation whereof, myself have known many, which by the advice of very expert and learned physicians, have been sent from Cambridge to Yarmouth, there to remain to take the air of the sea: whereby they have recovered health very speedily."

Its water supply was very abundant and excellent in quality. "In no place about Yarmouth," writes Nashe, "can you dig six feet deep, but you shall have a gushing spring of fresh, or sweet water."

In a lecture delivered recently at the Young Men's Institute, by Dr. Robertson of the Royal Military Lunatic Asylum, he stated, that tested by the relative rate of mortality, the salubrity of Yarmouth, was as great as Devonshire, and higher than that of any other town in England; the proportionate annual mortality being one in fifty-six only, whilst that of all England, is one in forty-five, and that of Liverpool, one in twenty-eight, and, that whilst the duration of life in the latter town is only seventeen years, in Yarmouth it is thirty-two.

During the last century it was a fashionable resort. In 1759, the first sea-baths at Yarmouth were built, at an expense of near £2000. In the *Norfolk Tour* of 1795, we read of its Bath-house a handsome public room, where was a "public breakfasting every Tuesday and Friday, and occasional concerts during the bathing season." Its Bowling Green, and its Assembly Room on the Quay, open two nights in every week, are also commended. "A traveller wishing to see this town to advantage with respect to amusement, should make it a visit in the bathing season, during the months of July, August, or September, when a great deal of genteel company from London, most parts of the county, and Suffolk,

assemble here, either for the purpose of health or pleasure." The society of Yarmouth both in a social and intellectual point stood very high, and is commended in contemporary memoirs. Watson, Bishop of Llandaff, and Dr. Parr, spent here a portion of every year. Dr. Aikin with his accomplished daughter Letitia, (afterwards Mrs. Barbauld,) lived here, as also Ives the antiquary. Canning was a frequent visitant. Crabbe, the poet of East Anglia, has most minutely, and graphically painted in his *Borough*, the scenery, and social manners and customs of the district. Here, to be properly appreciated and enjoyed, should be studied the writings of the poet, who was

"Tho' nature's sternest painter, yet her best."

He was a frequent visitor at Yarmouth. His son relates that he carried there the M.S., of "the Borough" for completion, and for the inspection of his judicious friend, the Rev. Richard Turner,* without whose counsel he decided on nothing, and adds, "can it be questioned that he trod that beach again, to which he had so often returned after some pleasing event, with somewhat more of honest satisfaction, on account of the distinguished success of his late poems." His description of the amusements of a bathing place, was assuredly drawn from the sands and quay side of Yarmouth, and we cannot resist making some extracts.

"Of our amusements ask you?—We amuse
Ourselves and friends with seaside walks and views,
Or take a morning ride, a novel, or the news;
Or, seeking nothing, glide about the street,
And so engaged, with various parties meet;
Awhile we stop, discourse of wind and tide,
Bathing and books, the raffle, and the ride:
Thus, with the aid which shops and sailing give,
Life passes on; 'tis labour, but we live.

* The Rev. Richard Turner, for thirty years minister of Yarmouth, enjoyed both from his sacred calling and from the force of his character, for many years a prominent position in the locality. As the personal friend of Dr. Parr, Bishop Watson, and Paley, Lord Chedworth, and Canning, he formed the link connecting those distinguished visitants with the society of Yarmouth, and the great esteem in which he was held, is amply testified in the correspondence of several of them. Crabbe was for many years his curate at Sweffing in Suffolk. Mr. Turner was also the intimate friend of Ives the antiquary, and made large collections for a History of Yarmouth. In the Sepulchral Reminiscences of Mr. Dawson Turner, an appreciative biographical notice of his uncle will be found.

• • • • •
 Soon as the season comes, and crowds arrive,
 To their superior rooms the wealthy drive;
 Others look round for lodgings snug and small,
 Such is their taste—they've hatred to a hall;

• • • • •
 The needy-vain, themselves awhile to shun,
 For dissipation to these dog-holes run;
 Where each (assuming petty pomp) appears,
 And quite forgets the shop-board and the shears.

For them are cheap amusements: they may slip
 Beyond the town and take a private dip;
 When they may urge that, to be safe they mean,
 They've heard there's danger in a light machine;
 They too can gratis move the quays about,
 And gather kind replies to every doubt;

• • • • •
 Then may the poorest with the wealthy look
 On ocean, glorious page of Nature's book!
 May see its varying views in every hour,
 All softness now, then rising with all power,
 As sleeping to invite, or threat'ning to devour:
 'Tis this which gives us all our choicest views;
 Its waters heal us, and its shores amuse.

See! those fair nymphs upon that rising strand,
 Yon long salt lake has parted from the land;
 Well pleased to press that path, so clean, so pure,
 To seem in danger, yet to feel secure;
 Trifling with terror, while they strive to shun
 The curling billows; laughing as they run;
 They know the neck which joins the shore and sea,
 Or, ah! how changed that fearless laugh would be.

Observe how various Parties take their way,
 By seaside walks, or make the sand-hills gay;
 There group'd are laughing maids and sighing swains
 And some apart who feel unpitied pains;
 Pains from diseases, pains which those who feel,
 To the physician, not the fair, reveal:
 For nymphs (propitious to the lover's sigh)
 Leave these poor patients to complain and die.

• • • • •
 Now is it pleasant in the summer eve,
 When a broad shore retiring waters leave,
 Awhile to wait upon the firm fair sand,
 When all is calm at sea, all still at land;
 And there the ocean's produce to explore,
 As floating by, or rolling on the shore:
 Those living jellies which the flesh inflame,
 Fierce as a nettle, and from that its name;
 Some in huge masses, some that you may bring
 In the small compass of a lady's ring;
 Figured by Hand Divine—there's not a gem
 Wrought by man's art to be compared to them;
 Soft, brilliant, tender, through the wave they glow,
 And make the moonbeam brighter where they flow.

• • • • •
 While thus with pleasing wonder you inspect
 Treasures the vulgar in their scorn reject,
 See as they float along th' entangled weeds
 Slowly approach, upborne on bladderly beads;

Wait till they land, and you shall then behold
 The fiery sparks those tangled fronds infold,
 Myriads of living points; th' unaided eye
 Can but the fire, and not the form descry.
 And now your view upon the ocean turn,
 And there the splendour of the waves discern;
 Cast but a stone, or strike them with an oar,
 And you shall flames within the deep explore;
 Or scoop the stream phosphoric as you stand,
 And the cold flames shall flash along your hand;
 When, lost in wonder, you shall walk and gaze
 On weeds that sparkle, and on waves that blaze.”*

The Denes, or Downs of Yarmouth,† which are not least among its many characteristic features, extend several miles along the coast. Old Manship, who seems never at a loss for commendation of everything pertaining to his native town, is loud in his praises of these Denes—“let me tell you, and that most truly” he exclaims “that albeit the Denes or Downs of Yermouth be but short Grass, by reason the same is overcharged with Cattle, (for being Common, the poor there hath like privilege with the rich, so that the one may not exceed the other in the feeding of any sort of Beasts of what kind soever to be put thereon) it cannot have growth accordingly. Yet, notwithstanding is the feed so sweet, and the sand so warm, whereon the Beast does couch and rest itself, that it doth nourish and battle the same (be it Horse, Cow, or Calf) in such wise that it will fat it as speedily, and causeth the Milch Cow there to give as much Milk commonly, as any other the like Beasts which do live in any of the Countries adjacent.”‡

From the earliest period they were used by the fishermen who came to the herring fishery for drying

* That most beautiful of the phenomena of nature—the phosphorescence of the sea—may be witnessed on the Yarmouth coast. It has been ascribed by modern Naturalists with almost general unanimity to the presence of NOCTILUCÆ, marine animalcules, which occasionally occur in prodigious numbers on the English shores. We refer our readers to an interesting paper on the subject in the *Natural Science Review*, April, 1862, by M. de Quatrefages, and to papers by Mr. Huxley and Dr. Webb, of Lowestoft, in the *Microscopical Journal*, vol. 3.

† Anglo Saxon, *DUN*; Dutch, *DUNI*; German, *DÜNE*; French, *DUNE*; Celt. *DUNN*.

‡ To regulate the commonage, and prevent excess of cattle feeding, various ordinances were passed. In 1552, no man was to keep above one cow, calf, or gelding, upon the common, on pain of forfeiture of the beast. In 1553, no swine, geese, or ducks, were to be kept thereon, or in the town.

their nets. In a charter, granted by Edward I to the barons of Faversham, it is stipulated, "that they of Yarmouth shall not build but five windmills upon the Denes; and these mills shall be built to the least damage and nuisance of the Dene, and of those who shall dry their nets there." In Manship's day, he states, "on which Denes be often-times, as many nets spread, as be worth £5000, and will extend in length, more than an hundred English miles at the least." The South Denes during the herring fishery, are still frequently covered with nets spread out to dry. The Denes were also used as an exercising ground, for which they are admirably adapted. In 1585, archery butts were set up,—and in 1614, the youth of the town were ordered to use them at stated periods, for "exercise of small shot." Manship, affirms the space "sufficient to darreign a battle of two hundred thousand fighting men;" one tenth that number might possibly mænouvre on the Denes. The advantages they offer, have partly led to the erection of Militia Barracks.

The North Denes were the place of execution for criminals down to the year 1813. Here also Pirates were gibbeted.

The South Denes have long been used as a Race Course. The present annual races, date from 1810, when races were got up by the Officers of the Berkshire Militia in garrison, and Captain Lacon gave a cup to be run for by members of the Yarmouth Yeomanry Cavalry. The movement for building on the Denes, set in at the beginning of this century. Unfortunately the paltry jealousy of the inhabitants, and the jobbery of the corporation, led to the erection of a class of shabby tenements, laid out without uniformity.* In 1808, the corporation passed a resolution, that all buildings there should be restricted to twenty feet in height, and not let out as shops or public houses. This policy was not upset until the enactment of the

* One of the sites thus leased by the Corporation, bore the curious appellation of "The Laughing Images Plain."

Municipal Corporations Act. Since that period, this quarter of Yarmouth has assumed a different aspect, and the efforts of the present day in the construction of handsome terraces and piers, and the laying out of drives and promenades for the accommodation and recreation of their visitors, deserve the acknowledgment and thanks of every well wisher to Yarmouth.

For two miles in either direction, the coast is not raised more than eight or nine feet above high water mark. The highest tides rise only 6 to 7 feet, so that the bathing is good at all tides, and the sands are available for horse exercise for a long distance at low water.

A walk down the beach, will naturally commence at

The Britannia Pier,

erected by a public company in 1858, at a cost of nearly £6,000. Until October, 1859 the promenade extended 750 feet from the gates; but during the heavy gales of that month, a sloop, driving from her anchors, struck against the Pier and divided it into two portions. The fishing platform and circular-end were subsequently removed, and the Pier was shortened 80 feet. The terminal platform has, however, been replaced. This Pier is generally used for passengers to and from excursion steamers, and vessels passing through the roads. Here, the visitor who is so inclined, may obtain fishing-tackle from the gate-keeper, and beguile his leisure with angling. A little below this is one of the best points for sea bathing.

On our right, we pass the Britannia Terrace and Esplanade, containing some of the best modern houses of Yarmouth.

A few steps onward is the Coast Guard Station, forming three sides of a quadrangle, with residences for the officers at each end, and quarters for the men in the centre.

Beyond this, is the new Life-boat House, which

contains two boats. It was erected in 1859, by the Royal National Life-boat Association, at a cost of £400. Yarmouth was one of the first places to possess a life boat. Messrs. Beeching's is the build most in favour here. They gained the Northumberland prize of 100 guineas for their model in 1851.

Next to this, is one of the chief architectural ornaments of the beach,

The Sailor's Home.

It is built in the Italian style, of red and white brick, with imitation-stone cement dressings, and consists of four stories and a basement, with spacious premises in the rear, and a noble flagstaff in front, giving a clear hoist of nearly a hundred feet, employed for the double purpose of providing a portion of the income required by the establishment, and enabling vessels to report from the roadstead their wants, arrival or departure, by the New Universal Maritime Code, or Marryatt's; from which staff 4210 vessels were in 1861 reported to owners, &c. The basement is open night and day, affording warm baths, dry clothing, the means of washing and drying the clothes of the shipwrecked, and all necessary appliances for the restoration of suspended animation, with convenient offices, lavatories, &c. On the ground floor is the coffee, news, and smoking room, open to every seafarer, gratis. From this and all the rooms is a clear view to seaward and of the roadstead for the beachman or pilot, who must be ever on the watch for life and property endangered. The entrance down to the Refuge and up to the first floor leads to the secretary's office and the museum, which contains a goodly collection of maritime objects and models, mainly contributed by seafaring subscribers, and near 1000 volumes of books, with an extensive supply of maritime charts, maps, and nautical instruments, newspapers of the day, puzzles and pastimes, with all that may render a library and reading-room attractive to the class for which they are intended,

and where, through the bounty of the benevolent societies, every mariner may hear or read God's word (many, perhaps, for the first time) in his own tongue. The museum is open during the day for strangers and casual visitors.

Passing by lavatories, &c., are the dormitories for British and foreign seamen, and the superintendent's chamber. The attic floor is used as a store for the property of seafarers cast ashore, or left in charge, gratis, when at sea or on leave; or for unclaimed goods; as well as additional accommodation for any great or sudden demand on the Home happening on a coast which 50,000 vessels pass annually, where more than half the wrecks of the United Kingdom occur, and where it has happened also, that 500 vessels have suddenly parted their anchors in one gale, in the depth of winter, throwing their crews unexpectedly on the sympathies and resources of the people of Great Yarmouth.

Since the commencement of this institution 915 souls, over and above the regular users of the Home, have been rescued and succoured at the Refuge from 160 vessels either wrecked on the sands, foundered at sea, or disabled, and seven lives all taken to the Hospital, have been saved by the ready means at hand. The cost incurred by the foreign seaman is repaid by his Consul; that of the British seaman (should he belong to it) by that noble institution the Shipwrecked Fishermens' and Mariners' Society; masters and mariners who can, pay for themselves; but the wayfarer and castaway, the most abject and helpless of all sufferers, depend upon the contributions of the charitable.

The Board of Trade's new storm signals, worked at the signal-staff in connection with the electric telegraph on the quay, indicate the coming storm; an illuminated clock, surmounts the building. When the fund now being raised shall be sufficient, it is intended by the directors that an electric ball shall give the Greenwich time to enable outward bound ships to get a true reckoning.

The hauling up and down the flagstaff—the brightly coloured bits of bunting—is a very interesting sight when many ships are passing. Those of our visitors who would like to decipher the mysteries of signalling and leave Yarmouth a little wiser than they came, cannot do better than purchase the useful little shilling Seaman's Pocket Annual.

And now we have reached that weather-beaten

Yarmouth Jetty,

which has formed the fore-ground bit of many a choice little picture. With Constable, Crome, Stanfield, and most of our marine painters, it has been a favourite subject, and our visitors will probably recognize in it an old familiar face. On this site as far back as 1560, stood a Jetty with a crane at the end, to facilitate the landing of boats and goods. In 1808, it was rebuilt at a cost of £5000. Here have landed exiled sovereigns seeking the shelter of our hospitable shores, and here have they embarked to greet the reviving loyalty of their subjects.* It was here that Nelson flushed with victory, twice landed to receive the tumultuous plaudits of his countrymen. From its central position, it forms

* November 2, 1807, Louis XVIII landed at Yarmouth under the title of Count de Lille. Men from H. M. Ship *MAJESTIC* rowed the boat, and the Count left with the officer a purse of 15 guineas for the men to drink his health; not one of them would touch it, they held a council, and drew up an address to the Admiral, conveying their sentiments on the occasion.

“*Majestic*, 6th day of November, 1807.

PLEASE YOUR HONOUR,—We holded a talk about that there £15 that was sent us,—and hope no offence, your honour. We don't like to take it, because as how we knows, fast enuff, that it was the true King of France that went with your honour in the boat; and that he and our noble King (God bless them both! and give every one his rights,) is good friends now; and, besides that, your honour gived an order, long ago, not to take any money from nobody,—and we never did take none; and Mr. Leneve, that steered your honour and that there King, says he won't have no hand in it, and so does Andrew Young, the proper coxen; and we hopes no offence: so we all, one and all, begs not to take it. So no more at present.

From your Honour's dutiful servants,

ANDREW YOUNG, Coxen, &c.”

Gustavas IV of Sweden, deposed by his subjects, landed here in 1810. Some years later he re-embarked at Yarmouth for the continent. In 1813, the Prince of Orange sailed with a British squadron from Yarmouth, to place himself at the head of the newly restored government of Holland.

the busiest and most crowded spot upon the beach : at this point, the liveliest on the sands, may be witnessed the landing of fish from the boats in the offing, the noisy auction of mackerel, the continuous launching and disembarkation of the pleasure yawls and smaller craft. Here may best be seen the "life at the sea side" of the Eastern Coast, in all its varying rounds from age to infancy, "life's opening and its close."

The long graceful boats upon the beach painted white with black stripes, are the Yawls for which Yarmouth is famous. Employed to render assistance to vessels in distress in stormy weather and in heavy seas, they are built to combine safety with swiftness. Their length varies from 50 to 70 feet, and they carry twenty men. One of them, the Reindeer, which is said to have a speed of sixteen miles an hour, challenged the invincible Yacht "America," to a match of £100. It was evaded, by the America refusing to sail for less than £5000.

Continuing our walk, we pass many large and elegant residences in Brandon Terrace, Kimberley Terrace, Albert Place, Camperdown Place, &c., and arrive at

The Wellington Pier,

erected by a public company in 1854, at a cost of £7000, in shares of £10. It is 700 feet in length, by 30 in width. This is the most fashionable promenade on the beach. During the season, bands of music play almost every evening.

The New Assembly Rooms,

are immediately opposite the entrance gates of the Wellington Pier. They comprise an elegant Assembly room in the centre, lighted by five large and lofty windows; a Reading room, and a spacious Billiard room at the south end; and a Ladies' Reading room and Toilet room, with Superintendent's apartment at the north end; with refreshment room at the back of

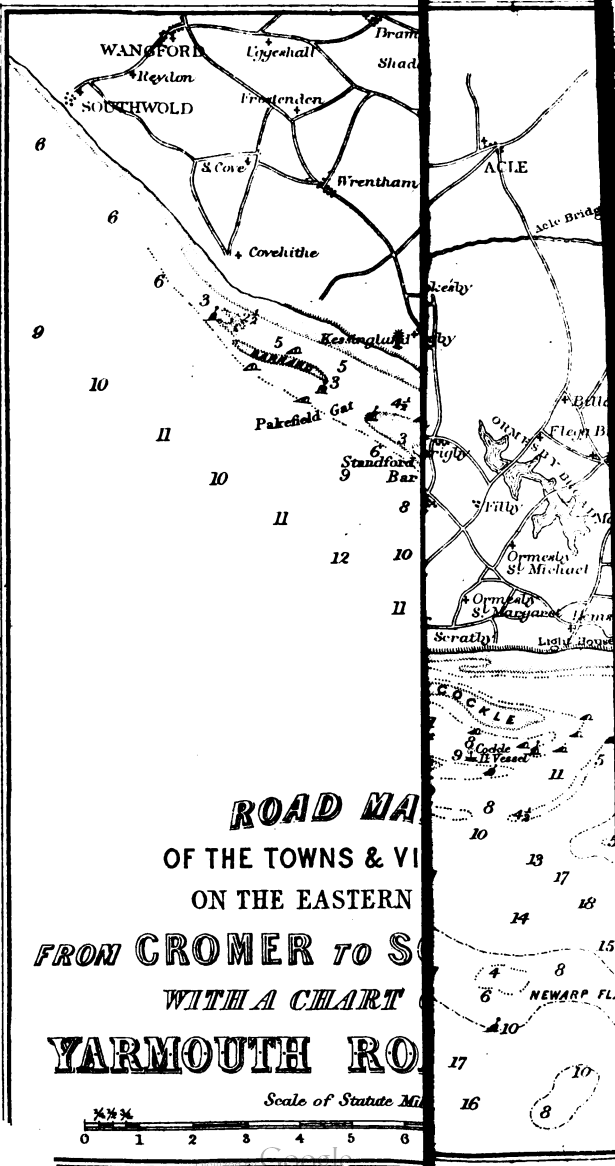
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the assembly room, from which it is divided by a passage running nearly the entire length of the building. The cost (raised in shares) was about £5000. The architect is Mr. H. H. Collins, of London.

Still moving south, we pass the mansion lately erected by Mr. David Falcke, and the Marine Villa, Telegraph House, the property of Lady King, and enter upon the expanse of the South Denes. The Nelson Column with its fine proportions, (already described at page 49), forms a fit termination of the Marine Drive and Parade which we have traversed. This magnificent sea-side promenade with its wide foot-paths lined with seats, and its ample carriage road extending nearly three miles along a broad and sandy beach which ranks among the finest in England, is one of the latest and greatest public improvements offered by the corporation of Yarmouth to its visitors, at a cost of several thousands. It has been constructed under the superintendence of their surveyor Mr. Morant.*

We have passed on our route a number of look-outs, square boxes carried high up in the air on lofty poles strengthened by crossbeams. These belong jointly to various owners of shipping in the town, and are used to watch the arrivals and departures of vessels in the roads. The Yarmouth Roads are famous in the annals of English navigation. They form the only secure anchorage between the Thames and the Humber, and frequently after the continuance of north or south winds, as many as a thousand vessels may be seen riding at anchor. Fifty thousand are computed to pass through the Roads during the year, and their ever varying motions now tacking close in shore with every canvas spread to catch the lightest breeze, now gradually fading away on the distant horizon, or vanishing past the headlands, make up a picture which

* It is proposed to carry this road southward as far as the intended fort at the Haven's mouth, and then to return it northward along the River side, until it joins the road leading to the South Gate. When this is accomplished Yarmouth will possess one of the finest "Drives" in the kingdom.



as it changes from hour to hour is ever new and full of interest. The peculiar dangers of this coast arise from its shifting sands. The town is protected by a range of these, forming a breakwater along its entire length. The sand facing it is the Scroby Sand. Beyond this is the Cross Sand. Running north east is the Newarp. South of these are the Corton Sands, extending to Lowestoft. The road-ways, channels, or gats through these, from time to time choke up from the action of the shifting sands, the navigation becomes dangerous, and in foggy weather and sudden gales, a lamentable loss of life and shipping frequently results. The only adequate protection devised to meet these hidden dangers, is the employment of light vessels which can be shifted from point to point with the treacherous sands.

Many memorable and destructive storms are recorded on this coast. In 1692, a fleet of two hundred colliers left Yarmouth Roads for the north,—overtaken by a gale they sought to return, but no less than one hundred and forty were driven on shore and wrecked, and more than one thousand seamen are computed to have perished that fearful night. In 1767, during a storm, 100 feet of the Jetty were carried away. In 1770, during

NOTE EXPLANATORY OF THE ENGRAVED CHART OF YARMOUTH ROADS.

The Lights of Lowestoft are bright and fixed. The Light Ship of the Stanford exhibits by night two bright lights placed horizontally, on the South Pier head. Yarmouth Haven, a red light by night, and a red flag by day. The Light Ship in St. Nicholas' gat, shows a brilliant fixed light, and a red light. The Light Ship on the eastern side of the Cockle gat, shews a bright revolving light every minute. The Newarp Light Ship, three lights, and by day three red balls. During the Herring Fishery, the red buoy of the Newarp sand is removed, to prevent collision with the nets of the fishermen. The two Light-houses of Hasboro' have brilliant fixed lights, and the Hasborough Light vessel has two fixed lights. The Light of Cromer is brilliant, revolving, and exhibits a face once a minute. Most of the very numerous buoys which line the channel sides of the various sands, are black and white striped, chequered and quartered. Monster buoys with staff and ball are placed at the entrances.

The Lemon and Ower Sands, which lie about 15 miles eastward of the Hasborough, are guarded by a light ship placed in the channel which runs between them, on the west side of the farthest—the Ower Sand: it has two lanterns on separate masts, the foremost revolving 38 feet above the water, the aftermost at 27 feet. When requisite, a gun is fired to vessels approaching, to signal danger.

a gale thirty vessels and two hundred men were lost.

On March 16, 1801, H.M.S. *Invincible*, sailed from Yarmouth Roads for the Baltic. Whilst going out of Happisburgh Gatway, she struck on a shoal called Hammond's Knowl, and afterwards moving into deep water went down, when Captain Rennie and four hundred men on board perished. In February, 1807, one hundred and forty-four dead bodies were washed ashore round Yarmouth.

Many acts of heroism have been performed by the beachmen on this coast, in rescuing the lives of shipwrecked seamen at the hazard of their own. One of the most remarkable incidents was that of Samuel Brock. On the 6th October, 1835, he put out with nine others in a yawl to relieve a Spanish ship in distress twelve miles eastward. Placing four men on board to assist at the pumps, the remainder returned. A sudden squall upset the yawl, and all perished excepting Brock, who, after cutting away with his knife his trousers, frock, and waistcoat, boldly struck out. It was half-past six in the evening, the nearest land six miles distant, it was dead low water, and he calculated that the flood tide setting south would take him at least fifteen miles before the ebb could assist him; several hours elapsed, he succeeded now in getting away his heavy laced boots. The moon rose nearly at the full. The swell of the sea carried him over the Cross Sand ridge, until he reached the buoy of St. Nicholas' gat, nearly opposite his own door, but four miles distant. He had been five hours in the water, and here was something to cling to. But he felt that if he got upon it the night air would soon finish him, and quitting it he steered for the land. The sea gulls mistaking him for a corpse had marked him for their prey, and gathered round him. After being $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours in the water, he hailed a collier in Corton Roads, and was taken on board at half-past one in the morning. Of the large subscription, raised for the widows and children of his

mates, Brock nobly refused to participate. He is still alive and pursuing his avocations on the beach.

It was on this beach that one of the most successful inventions for relieving shipwrecked vessels was conceived and worked out by Captain Manby, at that time Barrack-master of Yarmouth. On the 18th February, 1807, H.M. gun brig Snipe, ran on shore at the haven mouth during a dreadful gale. All efforts to communicate with her failed, and sixty-seven persons were seen to perish within 50 yards of shore. Moved by this dreadful occurrence, he was led to conceive the idea of communicating with stranded vessels by attaching a rope to a shot, which, fired from a mortar, would project it over the vessel, and so establish a connection with the shore. After many experiments its practical details were shaped out, and during his life he had the satisfaction of knowing that it had saved more than one thousand lives, of which one hundred have been rescued on the beach of Yarmouth. Government acknowledged the value of his invention, by grants of £6,700.*

Two of our greatest novelties De Foe and Dickens, have both exerted their great powers of description, in depicting the horrors of a storm on the Yarmouth coast.

A regatta takes place here, yearly, about the height of the season. From their extended area and panoramic configuration, no locality is perhaps better

* Captain G. W. Manby died at his residence in Southtown, in 1854, in his 90th year. He was born at Hilgay, Norfolk, was a school-fellow of Nelson's, and after quitting the Royal Military College, Woolwich, held a commission in a militia regiment for seven years. He was the author of several topographical works on South Wales. In 1808, he received the appointment of Barrack Master, at Yarmouth, where he resided during the remainder of his life. In February 1808, the first opportunity for practically demonstrating the utility of his invention for communicating with shipwrecked vessels occurred, when the entire crew of the brig Elizabeth, of Plymouth, stranded one hundred and fifty yards from the beach, were safely brought to land. His invention was brought before Parliament in 1814, and his apparatus in 1816 had been placed on fifty-nine stations along the coast. He possessed an active mind, engrossed with a variety of inventions, fire annihilators, life boats, harpoons, correctives for rot and mildew of cordage, &c., and was a zealous member of numerous antiquarian and scientific associations. There is a portrait of him engraved from a picture by Lane.

adapted either to enhance the effect of a naval spectacle, or to bring its varied details within the vision of the spectator,—than the Yarmouth Roads. In bright, picturesque, and animated movement,—the sea covered with a fleet of graceful yawls, yachts, and pleasure boats,—the beach, the piers, the fleet of excursion steamers, thronged with eager lookers-on,—we know of nothing of the kind to surpass the scene on these occasions.

ENVIRONS OF YARMOUTH.

SOUTHTOWN AND GORLESTON.

These two hamlets form a portion of Yarmouth. Crossing the Yare, by the new bridge on the quay, we enter the County of Suffolk, and Hundred of Lothingland. Southtown is described in old deeds and descriptions as Little Yarmouth, and was divided into two parts called Southtown and West Town. We have already narrated its early and long-continued disputes with the burgesses of Yarmouth, arising out of the contested right of the latter to the exclusive sale and unlading of all goods, fish, &c., on this side the haven.* The sturdy denizens on the south side of the river, refused to acquiesce in any of the decisions given against them by successive sovereigns, and never desisted until the monopoly of Yarmouth was upset by a decision of Queen Elizabeth. The quarrel was not finally settled until by a sensible charter of Charles II, Little and Great Yarmouth were incorporated together, and their jarring interests at last identified; the quarrel having lasted four hundred years.

A bridge stood on the site of the present one in 1417, replacing an ancient ferry. In 1553, it had been converted into a draw-bridge as a defence for the town, which had strongly declared itself in favour of Queen Mary. On our right, a hundred yards up the Mill Road, is a marshy tract known as Cobham Island; for several centuries the property of the corporation, and sold by them in 1657. Here were the old established salt pits and refineries,

* In this controversy the men of Gorleston took part, and defeated in the courts of law, they vented their displeasure in the following couplets.

“Gorleston was Gorleston, ere Yarmouth begun,
And will be Gorleston when Yarmouth be gone.”

“Gorleston great, will one day be,
Yarmouth buried in the sea.”

which for a time were in the hands of Bridget Bendish, of whom more anon. Before us is the new and handsome station of the East Suffolk Railway. Just beyond this on the site now occupied by a tannery, stood "Our Lady's Church," St. Mary's *ultra pontem*. Very little seems to be recorded of it, excepting that a Guild was attached to it, to which various bequests were made, which were appropriated by the corporation at the dissolution. It probably fell into decay soon after 1511, when the livings of Gorleston and Southtown were united. It was demolished in 1548, and its materials used in constructing a breastwork on the south side of the haven. Facing it was a Hermitage, of which also little or nothing is known, beyond the fact that it was granted in 1555 to the town, and after being leased to various families for the ensuing century and a half, in 1704, the "Hermitage House" was un-roofed and taken down, and the land sold. At the present day Southtown contains many neat and commodious private residences, and forms an agreeable suburb of Yarmouth. The project of erecting houses here, seems to have originated with Sir William Paston, the owner of the land; in 1656, an opposition was raised, and nothing done until the close of last century. From the Pastons, it passed into the hands of the Ansons, who, granting building leases, a new quarter rapidly sprung up, the row of "nine houses" standing in the precincts of St. Mary's Church being the earliest erection.* A little further on is the Chapel of Ease of St. Mary, an indifferent sample of modern church architecture, built in 1831. Beyond this is the Armoury, a large government building erected in 1806, at a cost of £15,000. Here during the war, 10,000 stand of arms were deposited. Recently it has been enlarged and fitted up as Barracks. Several of the largest ship yards and warehouses lie between us and the river, and as we proceed we catch many pleasant glimpses of the shipping drifting down the stream to sea, or being towed upwards to the quay.

We pass the toll-gate, and on our right where stands a clump of fine trees and the remains of an old wall, was formerly a handsome mansion, the residence of one of the chief celebrities of Yarmouth, Mrs. Bridget Bendish.† Her residence was subsequently

* On our left was the Yarmouth Proprietary Grammar School, erected in 1832, at a cost of £1500, but now demolished to make way for the goods station of the East Suffolk Railway.

† The daughter of Ireton, and grand-daughter of the Great Protector, Thomas Bendish, the father of her husband, was one of the leading puritan supporters of Cromwell in the borough. Of his son but little is known, and he seems to have been overshadowed by his stately wife. Many particulars of this remarkable lady are scattered over different publications. One of the most graphic sketches is that in GRAINGER'S BIOGRAPHICAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND. "Bridget Bendish, grand-daughter of Oliver Cromwell, resembled him more than any of his descendants, in the cast of her countenance and character. She, on some occasions, appeared with all the dignity of a

occupied by the Berners, her descendants. When the Bendish property was sold, the mansion which had been converted into a farm house was pulled down.

On the left hand, at the extreme south boundary of Southtown, a priory of Augustines or Black Canons formerly existed. Its precincts were bounded east and west by the high roads leading to Lowestoft and Beccles, and enclosed a range of buildings probably both spacious and handsome. Fragments, including the arch of a gateway on the Beccles road, existed until the beginning of this century. The church attached to it had a lofty, square, embattled tower of cut flint. This church was wholly destroyed at the Reformation, the only part left standing being the east wall of the tower. This Camden describes in his time, as "in good stead for a seamount." Familiarly known as "the old steeple," and engraved in old views of the town, it remained entire until February 1813, when a gale brought down the whole to the ground.* Numerous stone coffins have been dug princess; and at other times, had as much the appearance of a low drudge of business, being as laborious as she was intelligent in the management of her salt-works. After she had harassed herself with toil, she was as careless how, or where she slept, or what she ate or drank, as Charles XII was in the course of his campaigns. Her presence of mind on no occasion forsook her; nor was she ever known to betray the least symptom of fear. Sometimes, after a day of drudgery, she would go to the assembly at Yarmouth, where the greatness of her manner, and the superiority of her understanding, never failed to attract respect. She was never known to break her promise; nor in her common conversation, to pay much regard to truth, and it would have been rashness to have affirmed anything as a fact because she said it. Her charity appeared to be a virtue of the heart, as well as the hand. She exercised it in all places, and on every occasion; but in the exertion of it frequently left her debts unpaid. Her piety was strongly tinged with enthusiasm. She, on emergent occasion, would retire to her closet, where, by fasting, meditation, and prayer, she would work up her spirit to a degree of rapture, and then inflexibly determine her conduct by some text of scripture that would occur to her, which she regarded as a divine revelation. She would frequently fawn, dissemble, and prevaricate, and that for low, if not sinister ends and purposes; and was, indeed, the jest and admiration, not only of her friends, but even of her servants, who justly regarded her as one of the best mistresses in the world. She had the highest veneration for the memory of her grandfather, whom she revered as a consummate hero, and glorified saint." Sir Bernard Burke in his vicissitudes of families,—in the chapter on the rise and fall of the Cromwells, describing the female descendants of the Great Protector, quotes Mr. Luson a contemporary of the daughters of Richard Cromwell "I have been several times in company with these ladies; they are well-bred, well-dressed, stately women, exactly punctilious, but they seemed, especially Mistress Cromwell, to carry about them a consciousness of high rank, accompanied with a secret dread that those with whom they conversed, should not observe and acknowledge it. They had neither the great sense, nor the great enthusiasm of Mrs. Bendish; but as the daughter of Iretton had dignity without pride, so they had pride without dignity."

For further particulars of Mrs. Bendish, see Appendix. She is buried with her husband and sister in St. Nicholas' Chancel.

* "The old steeple at Gorleston about 100 feet high, which has stood and been a mark for ships passing through Yarmouth Roads from time immemorial, was on Thursday se'night blown down in the gale, with a tremendous crash."—*Ipswich Journal*, Saturday, February 27, 1813.

from its spacious burial ground, in which many persons of distinction were interred. Weever, in his *Funeral Memorials*, gives among others the following. — Richard, Earl of Clare, (before 1305); Roger Fitz Osbert, and Lady Catherine his wife; Sir Henry Bacon; Countess of Gloucester, 1305; Sir Thomas Hemgrave; Sir John Larme; and various members of other noble families.* We are now in

GORLESTON.

probably a place of some importance before Yarmouth was built. Many Druidical remains have been found here, and the frequent discoveries of coins, urns, and domestic utensils, indicate a Roman occupation. In 1768, a Druidical circle of large stones, some 10 feet in height, was removed from a field called Stoneclose, a matter of regret, from the rarity of such remains in East Anglia. The number of skeletons and bones turned up from time to time, authenticate current tradition, that Gorleston was the scene of various engagements during the successive invasions of Saxons and Danes.

Gorleston was a Crown Manor until the reign of Henry III. In the reign of Edward II, John Baliol was Lord of Gorleston. It passed to the De La Poles. Forfeited by them, it was granted by Henry VIII to the Jerninghams. It has lately been purchased by Sir Morton Peto, M.P. Tradition states it to have had a market in the time of King Canute, held on the Sunday, until removed by the Earl of Surrey to the Thursday. Now, a small fair only for toys is held annually at Whitsuntide. There is nothing of interest to detain us in the High Street,—keeping to the right, we arrive at the large Parish Church of St. Andrew, standing in a very spacious graveyard crowded with grass grown hillocks of the dead.

“ Yet here will love its last attentions pay,
And place memorials on these beds of clay.
Large level stones lie flat upon the grave,
And half a century's sun and tempest brave;
But many an honest tear and heartfelt sigh,
Have followed those who now unnoticed lie;
Of these, what numbers rest on every side!
Without one token left by grief or pride;
Their graves soon levelled to the earth, and then
Will other hillocks rise o'er other men;
Daily the dead on the decay'd are thrust,
And generations follow, 'dust to dust.' ”—CRABBE.

It has a thatched roof, a nave, chancel, and two aisles, which, like those of St. Nicholas, are of unusually large proportions, and

* “ The priory of Gorleston had also some claim to be considered as a seat of literature. Lambard, speaking of it, says ‘ Here was of late years a librarie of most rare and pretious workes, gathered together by the industrie of one John Brome, a monk of the same house, which died in the reigne of King Henry the sixth.’ ”

are divided from the nave by 18 octangular pillars sustaining pointed arches. The tower, square, embattled, and buttressed, rises to the height of 88 feet. Entering the church, the eye is pained by its many mutilations and disfigurements. This was once a rich and beautiful interior. It had its Guilds, whose pious offerings were employed in its decoration; and its noble resident families, whose memorials and brasses adorned the windows and pavements. It escaped the neglect which at the Reformation left so many noble adjacent fabrics to go to ruin, to fall a century later into the hands of a brutal fanatic. During the civil wars, a commission was issued by the Earl of Manchester, to remove all brasses &c., with superstitious inscriptions, from the churches. Armed with its powers, Francis Jessope of Beccles, paid a visit to Gorleston Church, and has left his doings on record. It is difficult to read without emotions of anger, the tale of ruthless and sacrilegious havoc perpetrated by this crop-eared knave.

"In the chancel, as it is called, we took up twenty brazen superstitious inscriptions, *Ora pro nobis*, &c.; broke twelve apostles, carved in wood, and cherubims, and a lamb with a cross; and took up four superstitious inscriptions in brass, in the north chancel, *Jesu filii Dei miserere mei*, &c.; broke in pieces the rails, and broke down twenty-two popish pictures of angels and saints. We did deface the font and a cross on the font; and took up a brass inscription there, with *Cujus animæ propitiatur Deus*, and 'Pray for ye soul,' &c., in English. We took up thirteen superstitious brasses. Ordered Moses with his rod and Aaron with his mitre, to be taken down. Ordered eighteen angels off the roof, and cherubims to be taken down, and nineteen pictures on the windows. The organ I brake; and we brake seven popish pictures in the chancel window,—one of Christ, another of St. Andrew, another of St. James, &c. We ordered the steps to be levelled by the parson of the town; and brake the popish inscription, *My flesh is meat indeed, and my blood is drink indeed*. I gave orders to break in pieces the carved work, which I have seen done. There were six superstitious pictures, one crucifix, and the Virgin Mary with the infant Jesus in her arms, and Christ lying in a manger, and the three kings coming to Christ with presents, and three bishops with their mitres and crosier staffs, and eighteen Jesuses written in capital letters, which we gave orders to do out. A picture of St. George, and many others which I remember not, with divers pictures in the windows, which we could not reach, neither would they help us to raise ladders; so we left a warrant with the constable to do it in fourteen days. We brake down a pot of holy water, St. Andrew with his cross, and St. Catharine with her wheel; and we took down the cover of the font, and the four evangelists, and a triangle for the Trinity, a superstitious picture of St. Peter and his keys, an eagle, and a lion with wings. In Bacon's isle was a friar with a shaven crown, praying to God in

these words, *Miserere mei Deus*,—which we brake down. We brake a holy water font in the chancel. We rent to pieces a hood and surplices. In the chancel was Peter pictured on the windows, with his heels upwards, and John Baptist, and twenty more superstitious pictures, which we brake; and I H S the Jesuit's badge, in the chancel window. In Bacon's isle, twelve superstitious pictures of angels and crosses, and a holy water font, and brasses with superstitious inscriptions. And in the cross alley we took up brazen figures and inscriptions, *Ora pro nobis*. We brake down a cross on the steeple, and three stone crosses in the chancel, and a stone cross in the porch."

The church was left a rifled desecrated wreck, and remains to this day the mere ghost or shadow of its former splendour. The east windows of the chancel aisles are in bad condition, and partially closed with masonry. The east window of the chancel nave, has recently been restored at the expense of W. E. Bell, Esq., and a clumsy, unsightly, wooden altar-piece removed, by which the appearance of the church has been greatly improved. A few vestiges of its ancient decorations may be traced. In the north wall of the chancel is the founder's canopied tomb. A handsome oak screen which railed off at the east end of the south aisle the chantry of the Bacon family, the Lords of the Manor of Bacons in Gorleston, still remains in fragments, in the vestry. This chantry contained in 1828, four large slabs of Purbeck Marble, in which had originally been placed as many sepulchral effigies in brass. That belonging to the second was fortunately identified among a collection of brasses sold after the death of Craven Ord, Esq., in 1830. It was purchased by the late John Gage Rokewode, Esq., and restored to the place from which it had been abstracted. To preserve it from further injury, the stone is now fixed upright against the north wall of the chancel. The figure is unfortunately broken at the lower extremities; when entire it measured 5-feet 6-inches, under a canopy supported by buttresses, of the period of Edward I, the brass inlays of which are always reaved. It is one of five specimens only which the kingdom now possesses of cross-legged effigies in brass.

The font which stands at the west end of the nave is octagonal, having seven of its sides charged with sculptures of the Romish sacraments, while the eighth represents the day of Judgment. It has been stripped of the coat of lime which filled up the sculpture, and displays some of the original painting and gilding. On the walls are many monuments,—records of the past importance of Gorleston; in the vestry is a very ancient church chest.

A cross formerly stood near the White Horse Inn, Fenn Street, another near the Feather's Inn, High Street,. The mutilated fragments of others were visible a few years ago. One at the south end of the hamlet removed in 1798, bore the appellation of "the Devil's tomb-stone." This was Clement's cross mentioned

in records of 1597. Leaving the churchyard, bear to the left and crossing the High Street, ascend the slope leading to the cliffs. On Prospect Hill and Battery Hill, are many houses let out to visitors and families who seek for cheap and airy quarters. It will be needless to call attention to the superb prospect stretched out before us. The lofty headlands which commence here, extend to Lowestoft without break or interruption. A footpath runs along the edge of the cliff, with but little interruption the entire distance, and at low tide, the walk is practicable upon the sands below. Either will have its attractions for the geologist and botanist.

The pedestrian may extend his walk from Gorleston, keeping by the sea side, to Corton, returning to Yarmouth by way of Hopton, which lies inland. The villages lying between Corton and Lowestoft, will be found described in our notices of the neighbourhood of the latter.

And here at the outset of our rambles in the villages of Lothingland, it is but fair to notify that our descriptions are devoted chiefly to the churches, with their graveyards. Should any reader object to this, we reply,—they are the first places to which we are unconsciously drawn. Here, visible to all, are the efforts of man's genius and skill, consecrated by his piety. Without them, our villages for the most part would be but as Kaffir kraals, or Indian wigwams, mere congregations of human animals engaged in providing for the wants of the body. Within and around these hallowed shrines, not dead but sleeping, rest the forefathers of the hamlet, their tombs bearing witness to man's hope and faith in his immortality. That graveyard is the village, for those without its walls are a mere handful, as compared with those who dwell within. Here may be traced its bygone history, the names of its families, their rise, growth, and extinction, with mute but unerring indications of their wealth or poverty, pride or humility, and from an examination of the sacred fabric, we glean the story of the past wealth and importance of the hamlet, and of its present prosperity or decay.

CORTON.

The picturesque old church tower of Corton is visible long before we approach it. The advowson of this church belonged to the abbey of Leicester, and at the dissolution, formed part of the church plunder. Henry VIII gave it to Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. Later it swelled the ill-gotton spoils which James I lavished on his greedy minion, Villiers. The church dedicated to St. Bartholomew, once a large and handsome structure, is now a roofless ivy-clad ruin. Stripped of its endowment, it was left to gradual decay. In 1776, an effort was made by the Vicar, and the chancel fitted up for service, much as it now exists. A small portion of the nave has been lately taken in: it contains a fine

perpendicular east window; and the tower, a noble pile 90 feet in height, is a conspicuous landmark. In 1812, a portion of the cliff was washed away by a violent storm, laying bare a stratum of oak plank in regular layers, several feet in thickness, and extending more than two hundred yards in length. Fossil elephant bones, vertebræ of large fish, and bones of the mammoth, have been frequently discovered, bedded in clay, in various parts of the parish, and their perfect condition,—not rolled or worn by the action of the water,—would seem to indicate that these animals lived and died on the spot where their remains are found. Eastward of Corton lay the village of Newton, now entirely destroyed by the sea, with the exception of a small piece of land which retains the name of Newton Green.

The crowded remains of the dead dug up in this churchyard from time to time, seem to indicate a resident population much larger in past centuries than the present.

HOPTON.

The Church (St. Margaret) has chancel, nave with north aisle the whole length, north porch, and square tower. It is chiefly early English, with lancet windows, and a triplet at east end, a chantry chapel with decorated window at east end of aisle; perpendicular font, of a design common in the district, and a lectern.

The inhabitants of the villages along the coast have an amphibious character, half fisherman half farmer, with a dialect, physical appearance, address, customs and manners, local peculiarities, some or other of which will attract the notice of all but the most superficial observer.

THE RIVER SCENERY OF YARMOUTH.

"Among those joys 'tis one at eve to sail
On the broad river with a favouring gale;
When no rough waves upon the bosom ride,
But the keel cuts, nor rises on the tide;
Safe from the stream the nearer gunwale stands,
Where playful children trail their idle hands:
Or strive to catch long grassy leaves that float
On either side of the impeded boat;
What time the moon arising shows the mud,
A shining border to the silver flood:
When, by her dubious light, the meanest views.
Chalk, stones, and stakes, obtain the richest hues;
And when the cattle, as they gazing stand,
Seem nobler objects than when view'd from land:
Then anchor'd vessels in the way appear,
And sea-boys greet them as they pass—'What cheer?'
The sleeping shell-ducks at the sound arise,
And utter loud their unharmonious cries;
Fluttering they move their weedy beds among,
Or instant diving, hide their plumeless young."

During the season, occasional excursions are made by steamer

up the rivers whose mingled streams flow down the Breydon water.* These form a pleasant variety in the programme of water parties. Especially can we recommend them to the aged and to the young, to those whose enjoyment of the sea is marred by illness, and to that increasing number whose tastes lead them to the study of nature, and the enjoyment of her scenes of quiet and tranquillity. Here, as our vessel gildes motionless along, landscapes of rich pastoral beauty greet us at every reach and winding turn. There is a peculiar charm in the contemplation of these wide and fertile vales, under the ever changing aspects of sun and sky, with all their subtle gradations of light and shade. Raised above the river's banks, the eye takes in a landscape which has that true and powerful element of the sublime—wide expanse,—above us soars a vast o'er arching canopy, and below, the bright glancing stream, flowing through a rich champaign country, and as it gleams cheerily in the clear bright sunny air, filling the soul with an infectious gladness: anon the clouds are flinging down their flickering shadows on the meadows as we flit past, now in sunshine, now in shade. This is the district with those dewy sylvan glades, those weeping skies, which Gainsborough and Constable loved to paint. Here are rich poetical landscapes equalling aught of the great Dutch masters, tranquil cattle pieces worthy of Paul Potter, sunny Cuyps, romantic Hobbimas, gloomy Ruysdaels, moon-lit Vanderneers. No scenes are better fitted to educate the eye to a perception of the numerous minute charms of nature, unnoticed or over-looked in landscapes possessing bolder features.

" Various, as beauteous, Nature, is thy face,
Exclaim'd Orlando; ' all that grows has grace;
All are appropriate—bog, and marsh, and fen,
Are only poor to undiscerning men;
Here may the nice and curious eye explore
How nature's hand adorns the rushy moor;
Here the rare moss in secret shade is found:
Here the sweet myrtle of the shaking ground:
Beauties are these that from the view retire,
But well repay th' attention they require.' "—CRABBE.

The grasses of the river scenery here, luxuriant and interspersed with the fresh and salt water vegetation, subject also to the action of the sea breezes, have a surprising variety of green tints, from dull yellows to dark browns, not to be witnessed in inland districts

* Three rivers, the Yare, the Waveney, and the Bure, each of considerable magnitude and swelled by tributary streams, pour down their mingled volume of water through Yarmouth Haven to the sea. The Bure has its source near Blickling, in the north, and is navigable from Aylsham southwards, passing the ruined Abbey of St. Bennett's Holm. The Waveney takes its rise in Suffolk, and flows in a navigable channel from Bungay and Beccles through the district of Lothingland northwards. The Yare rises at Shipdam, and its windings thence to Norwich traverse thirty miles. As it approaches Yarmouth, it receives the tributary stream of the Waveney. Here, the confluent rivers combine to form an inland lake of several miles area known as Breydon water, and forming a natural backwater to Yarmouth Harbour.

where the conditions of nature are simpler and less conflicting.* Of surpassing beauty to the artist's eye, is the chiaroscuro of the distant back-grounds,† with their blue uplands, their russet heaths,—the gleams of sun-light suddenly and momentarily lighting up the sails of some far off windmill,—

“The slow canal, the yellow blossom'd vale,
The willow tufted bank, the gliding sail.”

From the Breydon Water the view of Yarmouth is very fine, whether seen at early morning,‡ or lighted up with the last rays of the setting sun, or in the purple twilight.§ The “Yare soft washing Norwich wall,” will carry us upwards to that ancient city. We pass in rapid succession, Hardley Cross,||—Reedham Mill,—Postwick Grove, remarkable for curious geological deposits of marine shells,—the picturesque ruins, and round tower of Whitlingham Church,—along the richly wooded vale of Thorpe. Here our course runs through scenes of indescribable loveliness, the chosen rural haunts of the dwellers in the populous city adjacent.

On the Breydon Water an annual ceremony takes place in the summer, known as the Yarmouth Water Frolic. The bailiffs of Yarmouth at a very early period claimed the right of letting to fishermen at a small toll, fishing stations on the inland rivers, a right frequently disputed by the owners of the lands adjacent.

* “In proportion to the space over which gradation extends, and to its invisible subtilty, is its grandeur, and in proportion to its narrow limits and violent degrees, its vulgarity.”—RUSKIN.

† “Of these child instincts, I believe that few forget the emotion, caused by all open ground, or lines of any spacious kind against the sky, behind which there might be conceived the Sea. . . . I am willing to let it rest on the determination of every reader, whether the pleasure which he has received from these effects of calm and luminous distance, be not the most singular and memorable of which he has been conscious. . . . It is not by noble form, it is not by positiveness of hue, it is not by intensity of light, that this strange distance space possesses its attractive power. But there is one thing that it has, or suggests, which no other object of sight suggests in equal degree, and that is,—INFINITY. . . . Not only is this expression of infinity in distance most precious, wherever we find it, however solitary it may be, and however unassisted by other forms and kinds of beauty, but it is of that value that no such other forms will altogether recompense us for its loss.”—RUSKIN.

‡ There is an effect to be witnessed here, as rare as it is beautiful, at sunrise in autumn, when the tide is low. The broad surface of the lake, covered with the decaying and yellow vegetation of the rank salt marsh plants, is then flushed and burnished up by the rays of the rising sun, into a myriad of golden streaks, athwart which, the roofs and spires of the old town “transfigured shine afar.”

§ We passed in a very turning and winding stream, which gave us variety of prospects, over a very fine country, and at our return each night, the town made a delicate landscape.—REV. ROWLAND DAVIES’ JOURNAL, AUGUST 8, 1689,—VOYAGE UP THE BURE.

|| Hardley Cross forms the boundary mark of the river jurisdictions of Norwich and Yarmouth. The disputes of the two towns on this point were both frequent and acrimonious.

Nets were stretched across the stream during the autumn, and large numbers of eels captured. "Net Reeves" were appointed to take care that no unlawful nets or engines were used for destroying the fry or breed of fish in the seas and rivers within the borough liberties, and it is the duty of the magistrates and town council to prevent the use of unlawful nets.

Manship describes the formalities in his day of the yearly inquest of the river liberties; "To the intent that good order may be, in and by the same water-liberties, the better preserved, the bailiffs for the time being, two several days in the year, with many of their ancient brethren and others of the society, the inquest of the liberties, musicians, and other officers, on them attending,—with banners and ensigns displayed, sometimes with sound of trumpets, beating of drums, playing of fifes, and otherwhiles sweetly singing,—do pass on these waters, carrying scales, or 62 brass measures with them, to try if the nets of the fishermen be lawful; when, if they be not, they be punished according to the quality of the offence committed." After making public proclamation against the use of illegal nets, and the committal of nuisances and encroachments, a dinner which "their kind wives in most bountiful sort have formerly provided, is then prepared to set before them: where, in their boats, after thanks given to God for the enjoying of their liberties, they do *jocundare cum amicis*, each bailiff in his return meeting the other where they last parted asunder. And so passing together, they do with great applause of the people, and shooting of ordnance, set foot on land again at Yarmouth; each bailiff taking his company with him, where if any cheer, in their boats, upon the waters, was wanting at dinner, the same at their houses, be largely supplied at supper."* The scene has been ably

* There are some curious glimpses of this custom in the journal of the Rev. Rowland Davies, a noted divine of his day, who, driven from Ireland for a season, by the troubles in king William's reign, paid visits of some duration to Yarmouth in hopes of preferment to the old church. His journal was published by the CAMDEN SOCIETY in 1857,—August 7, 1680, "I broke fast with Mr. bailiff England, and about nine o'clock went with him on board a wherry made in the form of a barge. As we marched, three drums were beat, and as many colours flourished before us all along the street, and as we went up the water in each of our wherries, a drum beat at the head and a colour was flourished at the stern of our boat. We were attended by above twenty other less boats full of people, and if the seamen were at home, and dared appear, I was assured we should have had double the number, as was usual. The first boat that led the way was full of young men in white, with caps made like those of our grenadiers. After followed our boat with the king's colours on the mast; then another alike in all things, wherein was the other bailiff; after which two wherries followed each other, having the arms of the town for their flag, in each of which was one of the foremen, and the quest for each end of the town; they being persons sworn in the nature of a grand jury, to an inquiry into all the abuses and all the privileges of the town, and make presentments as they find occasion." His barge proceeded up the Waveney as far as St. Olave's and on their return to Breydon, rejoined the other bailiff Gayford returned from 'Hardley Cross, up the Yare. "At our meeting there was a stir in firing guns, huzza, and drinking healths, &c.; and so we returned in the evening as we went out."

described by Dr. Sayers, who witnessed it in perhaps its palmiest days. "Annually in July, the Mayors of Norwich and Yarmouth, meet in their state barges on the river Yare, at Hardley Cross, which separates their respective jurisdictions, and in the afternoon fall down into Breydon. This is a broad expanse of water, which receives three tributary streams, the Waveney, the Yare, and the Bure. All the many pleasure boats kept on these rivers assemble; the commercial craft is in requisition to stow spectators, to waft music, to vend refreshments: such of the shipping as ascends above the Yarmouth drawbridge, is moored within ken; there are sailing matches, rowing matches, and spontaneous evolutions of vessels of all sorts, a dance of ships, their streamers flying, and their canvass spread. It is a fair afloat, where the voice of revelry resounds from every gliding tent. And when the tide begins to fall, and to condense this various fleet into the narrower waters, and the bridge and quays and balconies and windows of Yarmouth are thronged with innumerable spectators—and boys have climbed the masts and rigging of the moored ships—adding to the crowd on shore, a crowd above—and the gathering boats mingle their separate concerts in one chorus of jollity—and guns fire—and loyalty and liberty shout with rival glee—and the setting sun inflames the whole lake, the scene becomes surpassingly impressive, exhilarating, and magnificent."

Although now shorn of its civic glories, the ceremony continues to be kept up as an inland regatta of the numerous and varied craft employed on these rivers, and as such has peculiar and characteristic features of its own which may interest a stranger.

On the 10th August, 1813, the first steamboat for conveyance of passengers between Norwich and Yarmouth was employed. It was one of the very earliest introduced in England, with a speed of about five miles an hour.* Its commercial success led to a second being placed on the river for the same traffic, A sad accident, which occurred April 4, 1817, led to a revulsion of public feeling. Wright's steam packet had just started from the foundry bridge, Norwich, when the engine boiler burst. The vessel was blown to atoms, and of twenty-two persons on board, five men, three women, and one child, were killed, six women with fractured limbs were taken to the hospital, one subsequently dying,—the remaining seven escaped.

The navigation on these rivers is carried on by keels and wherries, the former used for freightage of timber, are fallen into disuse; of the latter a very large number are employed. They are built to carry from fifteen to fifty tons, with a draught of 3 to 4 feet. The

* The Comet, built by Bell, the first steamer used for commerce in Great Britain, was started from Glasgow to Helensburgh, January, 1812. Its speed was five miles an hour. Steam boats appear to have been launched on the Severn, Thames, and Yare, almost simultaneously, the year following.

mast is by the head and so balanced, that one man can raise or lower it when passing bridges. The sail extended on a gaff at its upper edge, is hoisted by a windlass. These vessels are usually navigated by two hands, a man and boy or the wife of the wherry man. Sometimes their families are housed in a cabin placed at the stern.

A large fleet of yachts and pleasure boats is maintained on these waters by the wealthy residents of Norwich and Yarmouth. Some of these yachts we believe may be chartered for excursions by visitors. A very pleasant day may be enjoyed in fine weather, and when the tide is favourable, by engaging a boat on the north quay, for a row up the Breydon Lake, and beguiling the time by fishing, and the exploration of the very interesting ruins of

BURGH CASTLE.

At the south east corner of Breydon, near the point where the waters of the Waveney (*Wafensæ*, or troubled water) flow in, stands Burgh Castle, one of the largest remains of Roman Art in Britain, and in more perfect condition probably than any similar work. About A.D. 46, during the reign of Claudius, the Romans occupied the marshy land of this district, and to curb the Iceni its inhabitants, the Roman General Publius Ostorius Scapula, constructed two fortified camps, commanding the æstuary and at signal distance, the one at Burgh, the other, north of it at Caister. This at Burgh appears to have been one of the most important in the kingdom. It stands on the brow of the hill at the confluence of the two chief rivers, and forms an irregular parallelogram, in length 640 feet, by 370 in breadth, inclosing an area exceeding five acres. The walls are 14 feet in height, and 9 in thickness, the western side lying open to the water's edge. From the anchors, rings, and naval implements found in the marsh below, it has been conjectured a Roman fleet was stationed here. Four round towers of solid masonry flank the eastern side. Similar ones defended the north and south corners. On the top of each tower is a hole two feet wide and as many deep, supposed to be for the reception of timber watch turrets, and signals to Caister. The north has given way from its foundations, the south has also fallen, but is still nearly entire, so solid is the masonry. They were not built into the wall, but attached to it by some of the upper masonry. The materials used for the walls, were flint, chalk, stones, rubbles, and fine red tiles, embedded in very strong mortar, the foundations being laid on planks of oak which rested transversely on a solid bed of concrete. In the walls were the side entrances, afterwards the postern gates. In the field lying to the east, many coins of the lower empire, sepulchral urns, and Roman remains have been discovered from time to time. In 1652, Burgh Castle belonged to General Fleetwood, and Bridget his wife, the daughter of Ireton, and grand-daughter of Cromwell. In 1846, the Roman camp was purchased by Sir John Boileau, Bart, its present possessor.

In the *Norfolk Archaeology*, vol. 5, recently published, is a valuable paper by Mr. H. Harrod, embodying an account of some excavations made by him at Burgh Castle, in 1850 and 1855, with the object if possible of solving some of the points on which antiquarians have joined issue for the last two centuries. He rejects the theory of Mr. Robberds, that this district was open sea during the Roman occupation of Britain, instancing in refutation the discoveries of Roman remains in spots where they could not possibly have been placed, if the height of the waters had been very different to the present level. His main object, however, was to solve the question as to whether any western wall ever existed, the want of any external indication of this having been adduced as an irresistible argument by Mr. Robberds and others, for the presence of the Roman Navies in the Breydon waters.

The original walls Mr. Harrod asserts were not so lofty as at present by some four feet and formed the exterior facing of an earthen rampart. When the addition of four feet was subsequently made, solid towers of fifteen feet diameter were placed at intervals, the upper portion only being bonded in. This bonding is visible in the south east tower which has fallen away somewhat from the wall, and the north tower shows it more strongly still. Subsequent agricultural operations have levelled the inner earthen rampart; at the north side of the east gate were traces of a low wall, intended probably to prevent the earth falling down on it. At 150 feet from the north east angle of the exterior, commences a mound of earth heaped up against the wall, from that point to the western end, and the north gate is completely buried up by it. This appears to have been done to prevent the north tower and wall from falling.

The north gate was west of the tower, not east as is described by Mr. Ives, and but five feet wide. The west end of the north wall is within a few feet of the edge of the hill, and has usually been considered the termination of the Roman works in that direction,—careful inspection of the jagged surface and the broken bonding courses, shows it must have extended further. On excavating, the foundations were traced seven feet westward, the roots of the trees interfering with search beyond. The south wall at its eastern angle is very perfect, and conveys a good idea of the original external appearance of the walls. From other parts the facing has been carried away for roads and buildings. The tower which flanked the south gate lies prostrate but unbroken, and shows as in Ives's time the circular hole two feet deep at top. Indications exist of the south wall having also extended further west.

To ascertain the existence of a western wall, the chief object of Mr. Harrod's enquiry, a series of trenches were cut on the low ground on the west side of the field, near an old fence which divides it from a meadow. Here were found *layers of broken mortar, flints, and*

tiles, in great abundance, in one was a layer of stones placed on clay, with a thin layer of gravel above it. The foundations were subsequently traced through all the trenches, but no solid mass of wall could be found, all was ruin, one trench had a double layer of flints placed on a bed of very compact clay, which was so firmly beaten down as to twist and break the tools of the workmen when excavating, in another was found four feet from the surface, a fragment of the wall, *remaining in situ*, on the inner side the surface was smooth and perfect. Penetrating below the debris, a number of the *oak piles* were reached, on which the wall had been originally built.

The conclusions arrived at by Mr. Harrod, were that he had succeeded in establishing the original position of the west wall for two hundred feet along its centre. The state of broken mortar seemed to indicate that the flints and tiles of a serviceable kind had been picked out and carried away for building materials; of such, the Church at Burgh is certainly built. The disappearance of this wall Mr. Harrod accounts for, from its being subject to continual inundation, which gradually undermined it. Lying close to the river, the materials would be easily carried off. The clay and soil from the hills above, with the aid of the agriculturist would combine to complete the obliteration of this line of defence. Fragments of plain pottery, small coins of the Lower Empire, and the bones of men, horses, and sheep, were found during the excavations.

These conclusions of Mr. Harrod have not been generally acquiesced in by archaeologists, some of them of great repute, and well acquainted with Roman camps. He has failed in satisfactorily accounting for the *total disappearance* of this supposed wall, whilst the other three have defied the effects of time, and the destructive tendencies of man, for nearly 2000 years. In an interesting paper "*On Earthworks and other ancient Fortifications in the County of Norfolk*," published in the Journal of the British Archaeological Association, September, 1858, Mr. George Vere Irving, reviewing the explorations of Mr Harrod, deduces from them opinions similar to those held by Mr. Ives, and by local antiquarians of the present day, and concludes that the remains are "those of a quay or face-wall to the river,"—he points to the *mortar bed* in corroboration. The existing walls are grouted, *for which such a bed would not be required*, while grouting would not be applicable to a wall washed by the water, and mortar thus became necessary at this point. This difference in construction, accounts for the extent to which the west wall has disappeared, and explains the use of piles. There are persons living who recollect the Waveney flowing near the site of the wall. The river washing such a wall, would supply the fortress with water, in which it otherwise would be deficient. The holes in the tops of the towers, Mr. Irving conjectures to have been

formed to receive pivots, on which catapults and other engines might be brought to bear their discharges upon any quarter. Mr Irving does not entertain the smallest doubt that this is the *Garianonum* of the *Notitiæ*, the Station of 300 Stablesian horse, and to *Suckling's* objection (who inclines to place the site at Gorleston,) to the situation of Burgh as unsuited for cavalry, he replies that he has never seen a more beautiful parade ground than the field on the eastern side, and that light cavalry were better fitted to act in a district cut up with streams, than the heavy armed regiments of the Roman legions.

In 1774, Mr. Ives, the antiquary, published a minute description of Burgh Castle in his remarks upon *Garianonum*, illustrated with fac-similes of old maps and plans, and this work formed the standard authority on the subject, until the publication of Mr. Harrod's paper.

The church of Burgh is worth a visit. It has a nave and chancel, late perpendicular, a good octangular font, and some frescoes. From the circular tower of flint work, Norwich Cathedral, and seventy churches may be seen with a good glass. Its list of rectors dates from 1302.

A Monastery was founded about 640, by Sigebert, first christian king of East Anglia, founder of the University of Cambridge, and of the Abbey of Bury St. Edmunds, at Cnobersburg or Burgh Castle, which writes *Beede*, "was a most pleasant Castle, by reason of the woods and seas together, wherein a monastery was built by Furseus, a holy Scot; by whose persuasion Sigebert, king of the East Angles, became a Monk, and resigned up his kingdom; who, afterwards being drawn against his will out of this monastery to encourage his people in battle against the Mercians, together with his company lost his life." This monastery writes *Weever*, enriched by Anna, king of that province, and many other noblemen, with sundry fair houses and other ornaments, was demolished long before the violent deluge of such buildings, which happened in the reign of king Henry VIII.

CAISTER CASTLE.

The road to Caister lies due north, passing St. Nicholas, the New Union House, and the Roman Catholic cemetery, through scenery flat and somewhat uninteresting. The village itself is about three miles from Yarmouth, and the castle half that distance beyond. No remains of the ancient Roman camp are visible, the massive fortifications of Burgh Castle, within signal distance, probably rendering it unnecessary to have more than a temporary erection, one of the description called *æstiva*, composed principally of earthworks. A field called East Bloody Furlong, on the west side of the church, is held to have been the site. Many Roman remains, urns, pottery, &c., and coins of an earlier date than those of Burgh, have been found in the village.

The church of St. Edmund, at Caister, has nothing of great interest to detain us, but in the churchyard near the porch is the grave of Sarah Martin, the Prison Visitor, with a simple inscription by her own hand. On our way to the castle we pass the inconsiderable ruins of the church of Holy Trinity, at the back of some farm buildings on the right. "For three centuries this church had its succession of rectors and vicars patronised by the Lords of the castle, who enriched it by their benefactions, were worshippers at its altars, and found a resting place within its enclosure after death."

Nine manors are recorded to have been given by the conqueror to Ralph Guader, including Castor Bardolf, Castor and Reedham, Vaux's and Bezouns, St. Bennet's Abbey, Horning Hall, &c. Ralph Guader, Earl of Norfolk, rebelling in 1070, fled to Brittany. Godric became steward of it to the conqueror, and Castor manor passed later to Hugh de Gournay, who came over with William. From his family it passed 22 Henry III by the marriage of a female heiress, Julia, to Philip, Lord Bardolf, thence to Viscount Beaumont, and on his death reverted to the crown. It was purchased in 1532, from Henry VIII by Sir W. Paston.

In 1220, Castor and Reedham seem to have been under the abbot of St. Bennet Holme.

Vaux and Bezoun, according to Blomefield, were purchased by John, son of Alexander Fastolf, in 1356, and were held by the Fastolfs, with the manors of Caister and Reedham until 1459.

Caister Castle was built about the year 1450, by Sir John Fastolf, K.G. the most illustrious member of a family for centuries powerful and conspicuous in the district.* Alexander Fastolf was bailiff of Yarmouth in 1280, an office held repeatedly by the Fastolfs during the next century. They were great benefactors to the religious houses of Yarmouth. Fragments of his son's tomb, Sir John's father, may be seen at St. Nicholas' Church.† Sir John was a ward of John Plantagenet, the Great Duke of Bedford, Regent of France in the reign of Henry VI. He married Millicent, Lady Castlecombe, daughter of Sir Robert Tiptoft, Lord Deputy of Ireland, and widow of Sir Stephen Scroope, with whom he obtained large estates in Wiltshire and Yorkshire, together with the wardship and marriage of his step-son, which he sold according to the usage of the times, to William Gascoyne, Chief Justice, for 500 marks. Fastolf was one of the knights who played a distinguished part in the wars of Henry V. He was at the taking of Harfleur, Caen, Valais, and Séey, at

* The brass of John Fastolf, and Katherine his wife, A.D., 1445, was in Oulton Church, near Lowestoft. It was stolen, February 1857.

† "A Mariner, a man of considerable account, in these and other parts," writes Kippis. He married the widow of Sir Richard Mortimer, of Attleburgh.

Agincourt, and at Verneuil, where he was made a knight banneret on the field of battle. For the capture of Granville he was chosen knight of the garter. In 1420, he was appointed governor of the Bastille, Paris, with a force of twenty men at arms, and sixty archers. During the siege of Orleans he cut off a strong reinforcement conveying supplies, an action known in history as the battle of Herrings.* A sad reverse occurred shortly after. At Pataye, the troops of Fastolf, engaged with superior numbers, turned and fled panic struck with superstitious fear before the maid of Orleans; Talbot was captured; Fastolf refused the earnest entreaties of his friends to leave the field, until convinced that the day was entirely lost.† The year following we find him lieutenant of the important city of Caen. He attended the council of Basle, and at the death of the Duke of Bedford, acted as one of his executors. According to Caxton, our first English printer, he continued "to signalize his military abilities for forty years" in France.

He had obtained a license from the king for the erection of his castle, and here he retired in his old age, living in great state.‡ William of Worcester, was his private secretary, and has chronicled sundry particulars of St. Nicholas' Church at Yarmouth. At his death, which took place in 1459, in his eightieth year, he was buried within the precincts of the Abbey Church of St. Bennet, at Holme, to which he seems to have been a great

* So called, because it being the time of Lent, great part of the convoy of provisions consisted of herrings. After the battle, the English marched twice round the walls of Orleans, insultingly crying, FRESH HERRINGS TO SELL. This and other successes of the English Arms in France, caused the irreverent witticism of the Frenchman, that—

"God was wholly turned unto the English side,
And to assist the French the devil had denied."

† Down to the present day a stain of cowardice has been attached to the reputation of Fastolfe, as having retreated at the battle of Pataye, without fighting. Mr. T. J. Pettigrew, has, we think, satisfactorily refuted a charge so opposed to the general tenor of Fastolfe's career, in the *Journal of the British Archaeol. Association*, Sept. 1858. It originated with Monstrelet, whose statement was followed by Hall and Hollinshed. From the latter it was copied by Shakespeare in the first part of Henry VI. In confutation of Monstrelet, Mr. Pettigrew cites the *M S Chronique d'Angleterre*, in the Royal Library at Paris, (No. 6748,) written by Waurin, Seigneur de Forester, one of Fastolfe's retinue, present at Pataye, and a sharer in the retreat. The first impulse of the Duke of Bedford on learning the disaster, was to deprive Fastolfe of the garter. Further particulars of the battle and the remonstrances of the knight companions of the order, induced him to restore it.

‡ In the inventory of the property of Sir John Falstolfe, appear coin, in gold and silver, amounting to £2648 10s.; plate, besides some gold plate, not fewer than 13,400 ounces of silver. At his banquets he was able to make his table glitter with 251 "chargeours, dishes, and platters" of silver and silver gilt, besides 111 "flagons, gallon cuppes, quartelets, bowles, and gobletes," with ewers, candlesticks, and spice-plates in proportion.

benefactor.* Sir John built a chapel to the Virgin in the abbey. He also built the south aisle of the Abbey Church. He founded a College of seven priests for his house at Caister, a Hospital for seven poor men, besides exercising many other acts of hospitality, generosity, and charity.† He bequeathed to the universities of Cambridge and Oxford, large sums for the erection of schools of philosophy and law, and other liberal donations for the promotion of knowledge and religion; so extensive, that among the statutes of Magdalen College, Oxford, it was ordained that daily,—

“The monks should sing, and the bells should toll.
All for the weale of Pastolfe's soul.”

In one of the Ashmole M.S.S., written in the reign of Henry VII, by Sir Thomas Wriothesley, he is called “a rich knight and a greta bilder, having bilded Caister Hall in Norfolk, a royal palace in Southwark, and another in Yermouth; and a special good maister to the officers of arms.”

“To avouch him by many arguments valiant, is to maintain that the sun is bright,” says old Fuller, and as “a rose by any other name would smell as sweet,” so all must regret with him that the name of this noble, munificent, and pious worthy, was substituted by Shakspeare for that of Sir John Oldcastle, and became thereby identified in popular belief as the prototype of “the fat old knight” of our great dramatist.‡

At his death, his kindred the Pastons took possession of Caister Castle. The times were turbulent and property insecure.

“The good old rule, the simple plan,
That he should take who has the power,
And he should keep who can”

had not yet fallen into desuetude. Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk, asserted that “Sir John had given him Caister, and

* It is named in a curious macaronic jingle, temp. Ed. IV, written upon this celebrated abbey, which was fortified more like a castle than a cloister, and is said to have held out against the Conqueror until betrayed by the treachery of one of the monks, on condition of his being made Abbot, which was done and he ordered to be hung directly after.

Porticum Regale	Fœnum Gladiale
Signum Capitale	Hospitalitas parcimoniale
Sordidum Mappale	Ignis in caminis frigidale
Olus sine sale	Vadia servientium valde vane
Cervisia Novale	Ideo hospites ibunt sine vale
Stratum Lapidale	Pastolf eis benefactor ampliale
Stabulum Sordidale	Et valde cito monachis Immemoriale.

The small remains of this once grand and mitred abbey, stand on the banks of the Bure, north west of Yarmouth. Its walls enclosed an area of thirty acres.

† He bequeathed 100 marks to the repair and support of Yarmouth Haven, and for the maintenance of the walls, also “a sufficient sum” at the discretion of his executors, to all the religious houses in Yarmouth.

‡ Mr. Halliwell, in his tract on Shakspeare's Henry IV has disapproved the current opinion which assigns Sir John Pastolfe as the original of Shakspeare's immortal creation. He has shewn by ample evidence that a rude outline of the character existed under the name of Sir John Oldcastle, which was retained for a time by Shakspeare in his Henry IV, and subsequently

that he would have it plainly," and in 1469, he laid siege to the Castle at the head of his retainers. Notices of this transaction appear in the *Paston Letters*. Young John Paston, who had charge of the castle, wrote to his brother at Calais, promising him to "use the first point in hawking, and hold fast if he could." He did hold it fast for more than a year, when the Duke placing himself at the head of three thousand men, laid siege in earnest. The weak garrison "from sore lack of victual and gunpowder" surrendered, and the Duke retained it until his sudden death in 1475, when Sir John Paston lost no time in regaining his possessions, and obtained the king's confirmation of his right. Here the Pastons resided until 1599, when they removed to Oxnead Hall, built by Clement Paston, called by Henry VIII "his champion," by the Protector Somerset "his soldier," by Queen Mary, "her seaman," and by Queen Elizabeth, "her father." Of the Pastons a distinguished family of Norfolk, a curious and interesting account will be found in Blomefield. They are known to the general public by the publication of the *Paston Letters*, invaluable for the picture they give us of the times in which they were written. In 1659, Caister Castle was sold by the Pastons to William Crow, a citizen of London, in payment of a debt of £6500. Since then it has fallen into decay. After the lapse of six centuries its site has reverted again to its early owners, the family of Gournay, the Castle having been purchased by John Gurney Esq, by whom further dilapidation has been arrested.

The house, once an extensive and magnificent building, and one of the oldest brick structures in England, formed a quadrangle. The principle entrance was on the west side, a square gateway, grotesquely ornamented. The stables were in front. The best rooms, of which beside the state apartments, there were twenty-six, all hung with rich tapestry and arras, were on the right hand of the square, under which was a lofty vault.* This was 60 feet long, and 30 wide, over it probably the great hall extended.

From the inventory of Sir John Fastolfe's effects, we learn that there was an immense store of linen in the wardrobe, feather beds in most of the rooms, even in that of the porter, and down pillows, and of lavender, in all the principal rooms, excepting that of Sir John. He enjoyed a feather bed and blankets of fustian. The coverlet of the cook's bed was figured with roses and bloodhounds' heads. There was armour in abundance, of wine no great store, though plenty of "grate brass pottys," gallon pots, and pottles, "grate and hoge botelles," &c., &c. Sir John's wardrobe was very large, and costly in its materials. It included gowns of "rede felwett or blewe felwett, furrid with martines, and wrought with altered to that of Falstaff on the remonstrance of existing members of the Oldcastle family.

* The vaults were found to be choked up, at the beginning of this century, it is supposed in order to render them unavailable for smugglers.

gold at the edge," hoods of russett, jackets of "sateyne fugre" and of "derys lether," "hosyn of lether or blakke keyrse," and "hattes of bever, lyned with damaske gilt." On the tapestry were depicted hawking, hunting, duck-shooting, the siege of Falaise, the Assumption, the Adoration of the shepherds, &c.

What now remains, consist principally of a lofty cylindrical embattled brick tower, of elegant proportions and accurate masonry, about 100 feet in height,—the west and north walls, the latter 170 feet long,—and portions of the east wall which terminated in small towers pierced with loopholes. The west front of the quadrangle still remains entire. It is in great part surmounted by a line of machicolations, and appears from the size and arrangement of the windows, to have been the exterior of the great hall. These windows, a single row, are placed at a great height from the ground. A moat 30 feet wide extended round it, it is said to have communicated with a creek navigable to the ocean. The moat has lately been cleared out, and the waters flow round the ruins.*

We are assisted in forming an idea of the original appearance of the Castle, from a letter written in 1761, by Mr. W. Arderon, F.R. S., describing a visit to it.—"This famous ancient building, when it was all standing contained two large squares,† whose sides were fifty-six yards each. They were both surrounded with a fosse or ditch, part of which is now open, and is about ten yards wide. These two squares were joined by a large drawbridge; but at this day it is quite demolished. The square on the east was surrounded with offices, several of which are yet standing, besides part of two round towers at the north and south corners. The greatest part of the west front of the west square, as high as the first story, with the gate, is also standing; but what has remained the most entire, is the tower at the north corner of the above mentioned front, built of English brick. It is round on the outside, but a hexagon within. It is five stories high, with a mantle-piece in every story of freestone, as are also the transoms of the windows. The main bulks that go across the floors are still in being, and some of them very sound. By the side of this tower stands a pair of winding stairs, of one hundred and twenty-two steps, of seven inches each.

* A history of Caister Castle, with biographical notices of the Fastolfe and Paston families, edited by Mr. Dawson Turner, and illustrated with etchings by a member of his family, was issued in 1842, and went out of print. It has lately been reprinted by the publisher of this Guide-book.

† So declared the antiquaries of the last century, but it is difficult to trace the outlines of two at the present day. Mr. Ives, contributed a plan of Caister Castle to Grose's *Antiquities of England and Wales*, (1773.) in which it is made to consist of two nearly equal quadrangles, placed side by side, east and west, connected by a narrow passage, and surrounded by a moat. Some antiquaries have conjectured that the form of the Castle was a great quadrangle, enclosing a smaller, others,—that the second quadrangle consisted of detached dwellings and appurtenances.

Visitors will readily be admitted within the precincts of the castle on applying to Mr. Bond, the occupant of the farm house attached to it.†

An excursion to Caister Castle may be agreeably prolonged by returning by way of

ORMESBY BROAD.

Every season, thousands of visitors appear to quit Yarmouth without having made themselves acquainted with one of the most remarkable features of the district,—its Broad, or inland lakes. The charming scenery which fringe their banks, the excellent boating, the abundant sport afforded by their fishing, (and in winter, skating and wild fowl shooting,) are thoroughly appreciated and quietly monopolized by the residents of Yarmouth, who leaving to their visitors the undisturbed enjoyment of lounging from morn to eve along the beach, betake themselves to these cool retreats for recreation and change of scene. Of these broads, one of the largest and the most accessible, is that of Ormesby, which, uniting with those of Burgh, Filby, and Rollesby, forms a splendid sheet of water, extending over six hundred acres. Visitors will find accommodation for their conveyances, and simple fare for themselves, at Mrs. Groom's the "Eel's Foot," where also boats may be hired, and fishing tackle and bait are kept in readiness.

A cluster of fine old churches which will reward the exploration of archæologists, environ the shores of these broads.

Ormesby was formerly the manor of the ancient family of de Ormesby. Gunnora, daughter of Sir Thomas de Ormesby, was mother of Alice Pearce, mistress of Edward III, in his dotage. Here were formerly four churches, St. Margaret, St. Michael, St. Peter, and St. Andrew, the two first alone remain.

The church of Ormesby St. Margaret, consists of chancel, nave, tower, and south porch, there is a good Norman doorway, and two brasses, to Sir Robert Clere, 1529, and Alice his wife, 1538. The rest of the church is perpendicular. A new east window has lately been inserted by the liberality of the dowager Lady Lacon, and the nave is about being new roofed by the parish, as it has for some time been in a most dangerous state. The church of

† Tradition states that the "Headless Horses" have been seen at Caister. A similar apparition is attached to Blickling Hall in the neighbourhood, once the seat of Sir Thomas Boleyn, father of the illfated Anne Boleyn and her brother, Lord Rochford. The spectre carrying his head under his arm, may be seen once a year driving a coach with four headless horses, over a circuit of twelve bridges in that vicinity. As Sir Jeffry Boleyn, purchased Blickling Manor from Sir John Pastolfe, and complained of his bargain. It is possible his restless descendant occasionally extends his drive to Caister. A correspondent to *Notes and Queries*, who signs E. S. T. reports meeting when a child with one person who actually had seen the phantom, and was asked by it to open a gate, but "he warn't sich a fool as to turn his head; and well a'didn't, for Sir Thomas passed him full gallop like."

Ormesby St. Michael, has chancel, nave, and tower. The chancel is early English, and the nave and tower decorated.

Ormesby House, the residence of Sir E. H. K. Lacon, Bart, M.P. for Yarmouth, is a handsome residence built and enlarged during the present century, surrounded with ornamental grounds, and old timber. Adjoining the Broad at Ormesby, are the works of the Great Yarmouth waterworks company, which are worthy of a visit. Powerful steam engines lift the water from the Broad into filter beds, from which it is conveyed by a main pipe to Caister, where there is a large reservoir and also a standpipe; thence the water is conveyed in a similar manner to Yarmouth, for distribution by smaller pipes, the main pipe being upwards of eight miles in length. The total cost of these works was £80,000.

FILBY.

Six miles from Yarmouth. A fine grove of trees leads from the road to the church, (All Saints,) which has a lofty embattled tower, nave, chancel, two aisles, south porch and sacristy, the whole well restored. The rood screen is richly carved, as is also the west door. Here is also a beautiful marble monument to the memory of Charles Lucas, Esq.

The tower is a fine structure, with angle buttresses, terminating in small octagonal turrets, each supporting a figure; the parapet enriched with flint panels and stepped after a fashion very prevalent in Norfolk. The door to the turret staircase is crossed and re-crossed with bands of iron, closely set together, and is fastened by seven locks curiously wrought. This excess of precaution seems to have been taken with a view of converting on an emergency the tower into a stronghold.* Here was formerly a chantry in the north aisle to St. John the Baptist, with stained glass windows of several saints, and an *orate* for Edmund Norman, his wife, and son, 1441.

Several miles north of Ormesby are the broads of Hickling, four hundred acres, and Horsey, one hundred acres. At Hickling was an Augustine priory, of which almost all traces have disappeared. On the way to these broads, we pass.


MARTHAM,

eight miles from Yarmouth, a large and populous village, with a church, (St. Mary's,) the most important, as regards dimensions and architectural embellishments in the deanery of Flegg. It is an early and pure example of perpendicular, *circa* 1377—1546; with square tower, nave, aisles, south porch, with parvise and chancel. The tower of noble proportions, has a rich embattled parapet, good base mouldings, and stone panels, filled in with square flint. There is a fine west window, and good west doorway. From this

* Views of Filby and Martham Churches taken prior to their restoration, will be found in Brandon's Parish Churches.

last the view of the interior is very striking. The south door is an exquisite specimen of mediæval carving, in two leaves, pannelled, with tracery heads of rich design, and surrounded with a graceful band of vine leaves and fruit. The tower arch is lofty, with a series of shields in the mouldings; the nave piers fine and lofty, the windows good. The arches of the south porch, both external, and internal, are good. Both nave and aisles have elaborate oak roofs, the nave hammerbeam, with carved angels, and open tracery. The octagonal font is perpendicular, sculptured with the seven Roman sacraments, the eighth panel representing the last judgment. The stone pulpit on the north side of the chancel arch is elaborately carved. The benches of the nave have highly enriched poppy heads. The windows of this church were once filled with stained glass, of the most splendid design and execution, judging from one still remaining, St. Michael weighing the souls of men against demons. Many fine fragments remain, scattered over the other windows. In the south aisle is a slab with the following inscription.

Here lyeth the body of Christr Burraway, who departed this life ye 18 day of October, anno domini, 1730, aged 59 years.

And there lies  Alice, who by her life was my sister, my mistress, my mother, and my wife, dyed February ye 12, 1729, aged 76 years.*

Martham Church has recently been very handsomely restored by the liberality of Mrs. Dawson, of Rollesby Hall, daughter of the present vicar, the Rev. G. Pearse; to the memory of her husband the Rev. Jonathan Dawson, who lies buried at the east end. The pillars and clerestory which were out of the perpendicular, were re-built. The roofs of oak, and entirely new, are very beautiful.—The chancel has been entirely re-built in the Flamboyant style, and the east window filled with stained glass, by Hardman. The reredos is formed of cusped and moulded arcading, on detached shafts. On the north side is a memorial altar-tomb to the Rev. Jonathan Dawson. On the south side are

* Of this strange epitaph, the following explanation has been put forward. Christr Burraway was the fruit of an incestuous intercourse between a father and daughter, and was placed in the Foundling Hospital; whence when of age he was apprenticed to a farmer. Coming in after years to Martham, he was hired unwittingly by his own mother, as farm steward, her father, or rather the father of both, being dead. His conduct proving satisfactory to her, she married him; thus proving successively, mother, sister, mistress, and wife to this modern *œdipus*. The episode remains to be told. Being discovered by his wife to be her son, by a peculiar mark on his shoulder, she was so horror stricken that she soon died, he surviving only a few months. Mr. Singer the antiquary, has quoted several similar stories in *Notes and Queries*, 1851, and the following epitaph from the French.—

“ Cy gist la fille, cy gist le père
Cy gist la soeur, ce gist le frère
Cy gist la femme, et le mary
Et si n’y a que deux corps l’el.”

From a paper by the Rev. E. S. Taylor, in *Norfolk Archæologia* vol. 5.

arcaded sedilia. The chancel stalls are very beautiful, their carved foliage being copied from flowers culled near the Holy Sepulchre, on the Mount of Olives, &c. The ornamentation throughout is rich and elaborate in the extreme. The cost has been upwards of £3000, architect, Mr. Philip Boyce, of London. The fine tower has been since restored by the parishioners.

Two miles north west of Martham, and eight miles by direct road from Yarmouth is

WINTERTON.

An ancient fishing village, written in *Domesday book* Wintretuna. It formerly possessed a market and fair. It is situate in one of the most fertile districts of Norfolk. Here is a coast guard station, and a lighthouse of hexagon form, seventy feet high, whose friendly rays guide the mariner past the dangerous headland of Winterton Ness.

Winterton has a very interesting old church, dedicated to the Holy Trinity and All Saints. A visit made to this venerable and neglected fabric while fresh from the contemplation of the restored glories of Martham Church, will awaken many suggestive trains of thought. It is singular that all the county topographies are silent upon its early history. It has a fine and lofty embattled tower, one hundred and forty feet high, forming a conspicuous sea mark, nave with aisles, and chancel. The nave and chancel are decorated, the tower and south porch perpendicular. The church was re-roofed in 1637, as appears by the date carved upon it, when the pitch was considerably lowered. The construction of the roof is probably unique,—the span is divided into three parts by square oak timbers, resting on moulded bases, and carried up and tenoned into the principal rafters, which are ornamented by curved ribs. The pulpit and reading desk were arranged in an extraordinary manner under the chancel arch. The pulpit has been reared aloft upon a small wooden arch, through which is the approach to the chancel. Flanking it on each side are the reading desks for the minister and clerk, the former ascended by stairs, the latter by a flat staved ladder.

On a panel in front of the reading desk is carved "THE LORD HEARE THE IN THE DAY OF TROUBLE. ANNO DOMINI 1637, NOVEMBRE THE 15 DA." An ugly gallery, for which the churchwardens have duly glorified themselves, blocks up the tower arch. On the north side of the chancel is a sacristy, with a doorway from the chancel, and four small lancet windows to light it. The doorway and windows are blocked up, and it is supposed to have been appropriated last century by some family, as a place of sepulture. There is a piscina on the south wall of the chancel, and another with credence shelf in the south east corner of the nave; also an opening apparently an aumbry in the north east corner of the nave. The west window has been reduced by brickwork to half its original

dimensions, The chancel is in better condition, but two windows on its north side are bricked up, as also one on each side the nave. The present rector has within the last two years, partially repaired the chancel, by inserting a new east window, and two new windows on the south side. He has also erected a very handsome carved stone reredos, and floored the sacarium with encaustic tiles. All the brasses have been plucked from their matrices, with the exception of one near the font, an *orate* to the memory of William Keyman, 1528. On the east wall of the north aisle is a mural marble monument, inscribed.

"Sacred to the memory of JOSEPH HUME, long a Member of Parliament, who departed this life, February 20, 1855, aged 78 years. His end was peace."

The Hume family own the hall and considerable property in Winterton.

The south porch, which formerly had a parvise over it, is of very rich design and workmanship, with beautiful groined and canopied niches, and very closely resembles the fine south porch of Beccles Church. On its front is a dedicatory inscription exquisitely carved, many of the letters surmounted by crowns. On the floor of the porch is the matrix of a brass to the memory of a priest, the form of the chalice being very visible.

Four bells hang in the tower, one is seriously cracked, and threatens to fall. On a second is inscribed "Richard Cocks, Toby Cobs, churchwardens, 1607;" on a third "A.D. 1612, W. B." on a fourth, "Edward Tookie, 1677 made me." Weeds are growing in the crevices of the tower, and its only remaining floor is rotten. A colony of jackdaws have taken possession of it, and the stone steps leading to the summit, are covered with their nests. The view from the tower is fine, comprising several of the broads, a vast expanse of sea, and a wide area of land, extending as far as Norwich and Cromer. There is a curious twist in one stage of the buttresses of the south east angle of the tower.

The martyr, Bilney, was accompanied to the stake at the Lollard's Pit, Norwich, by "one Dr. Warner, doctor of divinity, and parson of Winterton, whom he did choose as his old acquaintance to be with him for his ghostly comfort." Our readers will find the touching story of Bilney's heroic death and martyrdom, in Foxe. When bound to the stake and ready for the torment "Dr. Warner came to him to bid him farewell, who spake but few words for weeping; upon whom the said Thomas Bilney, did most gently smile, and inclined his body to speak to him a few words of thanks; and the last were these, "O Master Doctor! Pasce gregem tuum, pasce gregem tuum; ut cum venerit Dominus, inveniat te sic facientem." And "Farewell good Master Doctor! and pray for me;" and so Warner departed without any answer, sobbing and weeping."

CROMER,

Lies about thirty miles north of Yarmouth, along the coast, and at the extreme north eastern point of Norfolk. During the season steamers make occasional excursions. Its situation is very striking and picturesque, and, as at Lowestoft, the sun appears both to rise and set in the sea. The town is built on a range of lofty cliffs above the sea, enjoying a prospect of unrivalled sublimity, sheltered by an amphitheatre of hills richly wooded. Cromer is a quiet but fashionable little watering place, wisely contented with those charms of nature with which it has been so liberally endowed, and those who seek for dissipation and gaiety will have to look elsewhere. Its undisturbed quiet has rendered it a paradise for the clergy and old ladies, whose never failing theme of mutual congratulation is the difficulty of access, which preserves them from being "over-run with those excursionists." The navigation along this part of the coast is intricate, and for sailing vessels somewhat dangerous, as is evidenced by the numerous lighthouses and light vessels which line the shores. In dirty weather, a wide berth is given to its dangerous bay, which bears with seamen the ominous name of "The Devil's Throat."

The chief danger arises from the formation of the coast, and the course which vessels navigating it are obliged to steer. If vessels leaving Flamborough Head proceed southward, and meet with a hard gale from any point between north east and south east, or if leaving Yarmouth Roads, proceeding northward, they are retarded by the wind blowing hard from the north east, so that they cannot weather Winterton Ness, they become embayed, and the only chance of safety is to run for Lynn deeps, in attempting which, they are in danger of foundering on the rocks near Cromer, or stranding on the flat shores between Cromer and Wells.

Some of the loftiest church towers of Norfolk line the coast, and are invaluable landmarks to the passing mariner. At Winterton, eight miles from Yarmouth, the church of the Holy Trinity has a tower one hundred and forty feet high, and a lofty lighthouse. Its headland, the Ness, is the most dangerous along the coast. From Yarmouth to Happisburgh, the shore is low and sandy. Here commence and continue for miles, a line of *mud cliffs*, rising in some parts as high as sixty feet, and composed of brown mud, blue clay, and chalk. Great portions of this coast have crumbled away. The villages of Eccles and Shipden have disappeared, the ruined tower of the former stands upon the water's edge, surrounded by sandhills which appear to offer a barrier more effectual than the cliffs.* Once a year, a sermon, and a deeply impressive one it

* The liberties and customs of the manor of Eccles, were ascertained by an inquisition before the Sheriff, in 1292, when the lord was found to be entitled to all wreck of the sea, resting-geld, free bull and boar, weyfs and strays, liberty of a gallows and tumbrell, (or ducking stool for scolds,) stolen goods of felons, bed-geld, (a fine paid by the vassal on marriage,) and other curious privileges.

might surely be made, is preached here. Happisburgh has a somewhat striking effect from the sea, with its lofty church tower, and two lighthouses standing on an eminence. Dr. Samuel Parr was vicar in 1775. Off that part of the coast, an oyster bed was discovered in 1820, and during the first twelve months, many hundred specimens of the molar teeth of elephants, were dredged up and destroyed by the fishermen; who amused themselves by breaking them, their wonder being excited by their separating into laminae. The tidal stream on the coast here, runs for six hours from Trimmingham to Mundesley, to Lynn at the ebb; and and whilst flowing south and south east to Yarmouth, at the rate of three miles an hour. Off the shore of Happisburgh is the *Newarp Floating Light*, and south east of *Newarp Sand*, is another light ship on which during fogs, a gong is sounded at frequent intervals.

At this point the noble church tower of Cromer comes into sight, our vessel drops anchor under its cliffs, and we commence an ascent up the steep stone staircases of its lofty sea wall. Cromer has greatly suffered at various times from land springs and the incursions of the ocean. Its harbour was formerly at the village of Shipden, now a rock composed of masses of walls of squared flints, visible at low tide.

Our first visit shall be paid to the church, a noble pile erected about 1369. The tower one hundred and fifty nine feet in height, of pannelled cut flints and freestone, is the finest example of perpendicular in the county. From its summit a prospect of surpassing grandeur is obtained. This church has very grievously suffered from neglect. The vast fragments of its galilee, northern porch and chancel, block up the graveyard. Its fine west door exquisitely carved with niches and pannelling, once admitted the worshippers to a wide and lofty interior, two hundred feet in length, seen through two arches of great magnificence. The rich carvings of its roof have disappeared, and its windows of noble dimensions, once filled with stained glass, have been bricked up. The nave is grievously defaced with ugly galleries, and the whole interior has a cold cheerless aspect. The flint work of this church will repay a close examination.

There is a considerable trade carried on by small vessels which lie upon the beach and discharge their cargo of coal, oil, cake, &c., at ebb tides. These have to be wearily dragged up the steep ascent, into the town, by horse carts. Cromer has the reputation of furnishing the best crabs and lobsters on this coast.

An old dismantled lighthouse is at Foulness point $\frac{3}{4}$ miles east of the town. The cliff at this point, two hundred and fifty feet high, having suffered in the last half century rapid encroachments of the sea, a new one has been erected further inland, standing three hundred feet above the sea, and lighted by thirty patent lamps, visible twenty seven miles at sea, and consuming yearly about one thousand gallons of oil.

At Weybourne beach, two miles eastward, are a series of terraces of large flint boulders, similar to those of Southwold, deposited and rounded by the same peculiar action of the tidal currents. Some geologists have foreboded that before the close of the present century, Cromer will have shared the fate of Eccles and Dunwich, and the German Ocean again flow over the valleys of east Norfolk. Inland Cromer has many beautiful walks and drives, and in summer its hills are brightened with the golden blossoms of the gorse.

South west of Yarmouth lie the five villages which follow.—

BRADWELL.

A short distance on the right of Gorleston is Bradwell, a valuable rectory formerly attached to the manor of Somerleyton. The Church, (St. Nicholas') has a circular tower, with three bells, a nave of three bays, two aisles, and chancel. The interior is light, lofty, and airy. The nave is separated from the aisles by pointed arches, on light clustered columns. The steps to the rood-loft remain perfect. The fine chancel arch, is of elegant proportions. At the west end of the nave stands an octangular font, the compartments of the bowl, deeply carved with angels bearing on shields the emblems of the passion, alternated with the symbols of the four Evangelists, the base supported by four sculptured lions; and in the south wall of the chancel are a highly-finished piscina and fine sedilia. The east window is filled with good geometrical tracery.—The niches for saints, on either side remain. In the chancel which has been restored by the present Incumbent, is a very curious monument of William Vesey. It is in a niche on the left of the altar, and consists of a group of figures in coloured relief. In the foreground are two females at prayer, behind, is a priest officiating; on each side of the latter, is a boy in a long white robe, his face toward the priest. On a square compartment, at the foot of the niche, is the figure of a child, in a recumbent posture upon a slab, and near him are four females with their hands clasped, in dark brown dresses, small black hats, and veils thrown backward.* A small brass, has this inscription—

Monumentum
Gullelmi Vesey de
Hoc villa armageri
Et duarum uxorum
Et septem liberorum
Sub hoc muro
Sepulti anno

Domini 1644, Ætatis sue 63.

There is a fine carved communion table of perpendicular work, also carved railings, surmounted by a frieze of sea monsters. The

* "Village gossip relates that this group portrays the discovery by his four sisters of an infant brother, who had strayed from his home, and was lost in Bradwell wood; but as the child is grasping a human skull, the device is probably merely emblematical of an early death."

east windows of the aisles are blocked up. Those at the west end consist of wheel tracery, that in the north aisle, original. At the east end of the south aisle are traces of a chapel with piscina.

Our note-taking being interrupted by a rural wedding, we adjourned into the churchyard. The clerestory lights are quatrefoil, the roofing of the nave and aisles now thrown into one slope. At the north side of the chancel are traces of a chantry. The churchyard is picturesque, the northern side dotted over with ferns and brambles. As usual in the district most of the tombstones have their quatrain of rhymed commonplace. As by no means the worst among the modern epitaphs, we jotted down the following ;—

On Mary Ann Hammond,—Aged 7 years.

“ Farewell, dear child, no more I press
Thy form of light and loveliness,
All those who gazed on thy sweet face,
Knew it to be an angel's dwelling place;
And if that realm where thou art now,
Be filled with beings such as thou,
From sin set free, and sorrow freed,
Then heaven must be a heaven indeed.”

On Harriet Roberts,—Aged 21 years.

“ In the deep summer thou dost sink to slumber,
Thou liest down to thine eternal rest.
Thou goest hence to join that happy number,
Who pure like thee, like thee are ever blest;
Go! loved one, to the bosom of thy mother,
Meet there the smile in infancy thy own,
Meet there thy infant brother,
Knowing in heaven, whom thou on earth hast known.”

As the wedding party came out at the South Porch, the girls of the village lined the pathway, strewing the gravel walk with fern leaves. They had mustered all the hand bells of the neighbourhood to greet the happy couple with a wedding peal. In the lane the young men had prepared a rougher salute of guns and pistols, and the clergyman who had joined us after the service, assured us that as the evening drew on a continual discharge of firearms would be kept up, a custom peculiar to the villages of this coast. We remember it also to have been practised in our school boy days at the Isle of Man.

The Parsonage house of Bradwell is famed in the district for its fine library, choice collection of pictures by the old masters, and valuable selection of engravings, The Incumbent the Rev. W. Trivett has held the rectory many years.* Beyond Bradwell is

BELTON.

In the reign of Henry III, the church of Belton, belonged to the Canons of St. Bartholomew, Smithfield. The present structure

* His salutation of the present Bishop of Norwich on making his first visit was characteristic. “My Lord, I was inducted in my living, the year in which you were born.”

dates from the middle of the 14th century, and has been recently partially restored. It comprises a new round tower, the old one having gone to ruin, a lofty and spacious nave, without aisles, with open wood roof, and thatched exterior, and a chancel; the fine east window bricked up, contrasts very unfavourably with its neighbour Bradwell, its stained glass is ill replaced by an indifferently painted altar piece. At the west end is a gallery on an arcade of perpendicular work. The font is of Purbeck marble, the bowl sculptured with pointed arches, supported on a column, surrounded by eight smaller pillars. Across the fine chancel arch is a good rood screen, perpendicular, with circular trefoiling. There is a stone piscina, curiously scalloped, open to sedilia, unfinished with canopies. On the pavement are several ancient gravestones, with sculptured crosses, and also some fragments of a curious old Norman font.

On the north wall is a monument to John Ives the antiquary,* also the remains of an interesting fresco, the principal group representing the popular mediæval legend of *Les trois vifs et les trois morts*, three cavaliers arrested on their way by three upright skeletons, pointing with forcible energy of attitudes to the cross; the knights meanwhile ejaculating on the mutability of life. They are conjectured to be of the period of Henry VII. The costume and treatment are very unusual for English art, and are probably the work of a foreign artist. The design has features of similarity to a portion of the grand fresco of Orcagna in the Campo Santo of Pisa, of the triumph of death, a fresco which has been the prototype of innumerable later representations.†

On a tomb near the south porch, is the following :—

John Dennington, 1792, æt. 49.

“Hark my gay friend, that solemn toll
Speaks ye departure of ye soul,
Tis gone, that's all, we know not where,
How ye unbodied soul does fare,
In that mysterious world none knows,
But God alone to whom it goes,
To whom departed souls return,
To take their doom, to smile or mourn.

* John Ives, who died at the early age of twenty-five, was an antiquary of some local note in his day. He was born at Yarmouth in 1750, and educated at Norwich. His love of antiquities was displayed at a very early age, and seems to have been increased by his acquaintance with Tom Martin of Palgrave, a great collector, and kindred spirit. Swinden the laborious compiler of the records of Yarmouth was befriended by Ives. Dying whilst the last sheet was in the press, Ives furnished the preface and aided in its publication for the benefit of the widow. Besides his *Gariannonum* he contributed various papers to the publications of the day. He was a member of the Antiquarian and Royal Societies, and Suffolk Herald extraordinary. In 1773, he eloped with Miss Kett, and died of consumption in 1776. His collections of M.S., coins, pictures, &c., many formerly belonging to Le Neve, Martin, and Bloomfield were dispersed by auction.

† An outline engraving of this fresco, will be found in Kugler's *Italian Art*, vol. 1, p. 146. Murray, 1855.

Wise Heaven to render search perplex,
 Hns drawn 'twixt this world and the next,
 A dark impenetrable screen,
 All behind is yet unseen,
 This hour perhaps our friend is well,
 The next we hear his passing bell,
 He dies, and then for ought we see,
 Ceases at once to breathe and be.
 Swift flies ye soul, perhaps 'tis gone
 A thousand leagues beyond ye sun,
 Or twice ten thousand more, twice told,
 Ere ye forsaken clay is cold,
 And oh ! what worlds must I survey,
 The moment that I leave this clay,
 How sudden the surprise, how new,
 Great God ! let it be happy too.

FRITTON,

Lies about two miles beyond Belton. Its beautiful lake or broad, is the most picturesque sheet of water in East Anglia. Boating and angling can only be obtained at the farm house of Mrs. Guyton. As the stabling and house accommodation is of a limited character, and two boats only are kept, it will be absolutely necessary to prevent disappointment, to write beforehand to secure them. The trouble however will be amply repaid. The lake extends for two miles in a series of graceful sweeps, its shores fringed with "natural groups of the graceful birch-tree, mingled with oaks, which sweep the margin of the water with their light and pendulous sprays.—Pike, perch, and eels of considerable size are taken here, and wild fowl of different species resort during winter to the shelter of its numerous inlets. The capture of these in decoys, affords considerable profit to the proprietors whose estates environ the shores."

The church will well repay a visit. It has the very unusual features in this district of a Norman Apsidal Chancel, with groined vaulting. Its three windows have lately been restored. It is entered through an oak screen by a descent of one step. The nave, plain decorated, has on its north wall frescoes of St. Christopher, &c., apparently by the painter of Haddiscoe. There is an old vestry chest with good panel work. The Norman font is modern, a copy of that at Hartland, Devonshire, and replaces a silver vase on a wooden pedestal. The church has a round tower, recased with cut flints with decorated windows inserted in its upper stage; and a thatched roof. In the register is the following:—

"On the 17th, August, 1816, Hannah Freeman did penance in this church, for defaming the character of Mary Banham, Spinster." Passing out of the churchyard, we noticed the following epitaph near the gate.

Jane Rivett, 1854, aged 57.

My wife was of Angelic race,
 She's gone to heaven her native place.

HERRINGFLEET.

The old manor house of Loudham, originally moated in, and of the Elizabethan period, stands near the church. Herringfleet Hall has a good collection of pictures. Blocker Hall, in the village, has been a curious old mansion, but is now greatly modernised. Near the ancient ferry across the Waveney, stood the Augustinian priory of St. Olave, founded in the reign of Henry III, by Roger Fitz Osbert. Its remains were pulled down in 1784, some portions are still standing. A large room used as a barn is said to have been the refectory, and a few years back had a handsome roof of open timber work, and a double crypt. Many persons of distinction were interred here. St. Olaves' Bridge superseded the ancient ferry, and was built, together with the causeway over Haddiscoe dam, at the sole cost of dame Margaret Hobart, in the time of Henry VII, as recorded on an old brass formerly in Lodden Church.

The church (St. Margaret,) has chancel and nave, with round tower, all Norman. In the upper part of the tower are four circular headed windows of wide proportion, enclosing two light triangular arches. Here are sunk star Norman mouldings, the precursors of the tooth ornament. The interior has been restored at the cost of Mr. Leathes. The rood screen has been removed and placed in front of the gallery, with a good effect. Several of the chancel windows have been filled with old stained glass from a monastery in France.

HADDISCOE.

Parties from Yarmouth or Lowestoft who have engaged a conveyance for the day may extend their ride to this village. It is nearly four miles beyond Fritton, and three from St. Olave's station. Beyond this station the causeway winds between dykes lined with willows through some of the best flat scenery of the district.

The church lies beyond the village on an elevated site. It comprises nave, north apsidal chapel, its arches with square piers, chancel and round tower. On the north wall of the nave are remains of frescoes of St. Christopher, &c. There is a fine early English double piscina, a fine Norman south door with rich zigzag and billet mouldings, above it is sculptured a seated figure of a saint, perhaps Roger de Haddiscoe. The south porch is of later date. The north door resembles the south, on a smaller scale. The round tower, one of the best examples of flint laid in regular courses, is of rich work banded in five stories. The upper story windows of two lights, triangular headed, under canopies. The church was undergoing internal restoration at our visit, and the bowl of the fine font removed to Beccles for repairs.

On the outer side of the south wall of the churchyard is inserted a stone, with the following epitaph.

William Slater, Yarmouth stage coachman, died Oct 9, 1776, aged 59.

"Here lies Will Slater, honest man,
Deny it envy, if you can,
True to his business, and his trust,
Always punctual, always just,
His horses, could they speak, would tell
They loved their good old master well,
His up-hill work is chiefly done,
His stage is ended, race is run,
One journey is remaining still,
To climb up Sion's holy hill,
And now his faults are all forgiven,
Elijah like drive up to heaven,
Take the reward of all his pains,
And leave to other hands the reins."

LOWESTOFT.

The chief place in the island of Lothingland, is picturesquely situated on the edge of a cliff, whose beach jutting out, forms the most easterly point of Great Britain. No town in the Eastern Counties has increased with such rapidity during the present century. In 1801, the population was 2332; in 1841, 4832; in 1851, 6580; in 1861, 9413. This extraordinary growth in the midst of an almost stagnant surrounding district, is owing to a conjunction of circumstances,—the natural advantages of its position, its excellent railway facilities, the remarkable development of the public taste for sea side relaxation, and last, and by no means least, the investments by wealthy local capitalists of vast sums in the improvement, adornment, and enlargement of its accommodation for visitors. Its modern rise may be fairly dated from the commencement of the enterprise designed to open up Lake Lothing, and to form a navigable channel to the sea. This undertaking we shall have subsequent occasion to revert to.

Lothingland occupies the north east corner of the County of Suffolk. Lothen, the Dane, entering its southern estuary, *circa*, 1047, gave his name to the district. In Domesday, it is styled *Ludingaland*, the

town of Lowestoft appearing as Lothen-Westof, whence it is supposed he placed here a station for such of his countrymen as might land on this extreme east point of England; its name denoting "Lothen's Guest House" or "Stranger's Hall." The district formed at that period an island, the sea on the east; the Yare, north; the Waveney, west; and the estuary of Lake Lothing, south. Its length was ten miles, and width six. It was gradually attached to the main land by the silting up of the Lake Lothing entrance to the sea, several centuries back. The island contained sixteen parishes, Corton, Gunton, Oulton, Ashby, Lonnd, Fritton, Flixton, Hopton, Somerleyton Blundeston, Gorleston, Belton, Burgh, Bradwell, Herringfleet, and Lowestoft. Great part of its estates belonged at the time of Edward the Confessor to Gurth, sixth son of Earl Godwin, the brother of Edith, the wife of the Confessor. At the battle of Hastings, Earl Gurth shared his brother Harold's fortunes and fate, and his broad lands were seized by the Conqueror, and held by him under the stewardship of Roger Bigod. Henry III gave the manor of Lothingland with the fee farm rent of Yarmouth, to Devorgill, wife of John de Baliol, in exchange for large estates in Cheshire.* Her son the king of Scotland, forfeited them to the crown, and Edward I bestowed the island upon his nephew, John de Brittany, Earl of Richmond. We have briefly described in the early history of Yarmouth the disputes of that town with this Earl and his predecessor Baliol. Later the king's manor of Lothingland, passed to the Fitz Osberts, who fixed their seat at Somerleyton. This family becoming extinct in the male line, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the greater part passed to the Jerninghams. Part of Lothingland was purchased from them by the Wentworths, and descended to their relatives the

* Political reasons occasioned this forced exchange. It was to weaken the formidable power of the Earls palatine of Chester. On the death of Earl John, with only female issue, the king annexed the county to the crown, awarding estates elsewhere to his daughters.

Garneys, from whom the stout admiral Sir Thomas Allen, bought it in 1672. From his descendants it passed to the family of Anguish, and thence by inheritance to Lord Sydney Godolphin Osborne, by whom it was sold in 1844 to Sir Samuel Morton Peto, Bart, M.P.

The early history of Lowestoft is bound up with that of its neighbour and rival Yarmouth. Their long, harrassing, and costly litigations, extending over centuries, we have already alluded to (see page 24), and need not recapitulate. They will be found at full length in Gillingwater's* history of Lowestoft, and Swinden's Yarmouth. When Yarmouth declared for the parliament, Lowestoft with equal warmth espoused the cause of the king. In an evil hour, Yarmouth had captured and sold a ship belonging to Captain Allen, a seaman who later on greatly distinguished himself in the naval wars of that century. He and others of Lowestoft smarting under similar injuries, formed a confederacy for retaliation, and retiring beyond sea, fitted out a fleet of privateers which most effectually crippled the commerce and fisheries of Yarmouth.†

* Gillingwater was a barber of Lowestoft. His history, in 4to, now scarce, in its tone and temper is a most creditable production. Few districts are so rich in topography as this, or can shew three such laborious antiquarian works written by men in humble circumstances, as Swinden's (schoolmaster) Yarmouth, Gillingwater's Lowestoft, and Gardner's (exciseman) Southwold and Dunwich.

† The Yarmouth men being thus distressed, applied to parliament for a convoy to protect their trade; in consequence whereof, in 1645, three men of war were sent, by order of the Lord Admiral, to convoy their fishers and guard their coasts; who took several of their enemies who were engaged in the confederacy, amongst whom were some Lowestoft men.

As soon as the parties concerned in this confederacy (who had retired beyond sea) were informed of these proceedings on the part of Yarmouth, they sent the town the following letter:—

“To the BAILIFFS OF GREAT YARMOUTH, in NORFOLK.”

Right Worshipful,

“We hereby give you to understand, that those seamen of ours, which your men of war have lately taken, or may hereafter take in prizes of ours, be not imprisoned. And that you set at liberty all those that are confined, otherwise you shall not have that usage you formerly have had from us. Without delay let this be observed, else you will have cause to repent. We have given you thousands of prisoners which we might have endungeoned, nay hanged, but that rebellious ignorance have pleaded their escape. Now we can, if you compel us, make a hundred suffer for one. Our pleasures are commended to

In March, 1642. Cromwell, who had raised in the associated counties a regiment of horse, learning that mischief to the Parliament was brewing amongst the cavalier party at Lowestoft, suddenly swooped down on the town at the head of his brigade, the day before a large meeting was to have been held for organizing a counter-association, and wresting the eastern counties out of his hands. He was met there by the Yarmouth Volunteers, who took with them several pieces of ordnance. Taken by surprise, the town made no defence. Sending for Sir John Pettus, he interrogated him as to the designs of the counter-association, and as to which party he intended to engage himself. Sir John replying frankly—for the king,—Cromwell applauded his sincerity, and dismissed him, expressing his wish that “every other man in the kingdom were as open and sincere.”

His soldiers had free quarters, and Cromwell having trampled out the hostile combinations of the Royalists, and seized upon the ammunition and military stores of the place, quitted it, taking with him as prisoners the chiefs of the cavaliers, halting at Somerleyton on his way back to Norwich.

On March 10, 1644—45, a terrible fire broke out, which destroyed in dwelling houses, fish houses, and goods, to the value of £10,000.*

At the close of the century, Lowestoft overwhelmed by successive misfortunes,—the losses in the civil wars, the plague, fires, the Dutch wars, and the litigation with Yarmouth—was reduced to a condition of great impoverishment and distress.

In 1663, Lowestoft shared the disgrace with Yarmouth and Bury of the infamous witch prosecutions.

you, by just and due observation, not to make the innocent suffer for the nocent. Therefore we do dally set at liberty yours, supposing, that upon receipt of these you will do the same by ours; otherwise we shall make known to you our intentions.

Ostend, June 22, 1645.

THOMAS ALLEN, &c.”

* Lowestoft in common with its neighbour Southwold, appear to have suffered grievously from fires. Serious damage was done by them in 1670, 1717, and 1780.

Hopkins, the witch finder, went his circuit, causing the death of sixteen unhappy creatures at Yarmouth, forty at Bury, and a number in other towns. At Lowestoft a Mr. Samuel Pacey, an eminent dissenter, commenced a prosecution against two poor widows for bewitching two of his daughters. They were tried at Bury, before Sir Matthew Hale, condemned and executed.

The most remarkable, the most honourable feature in the past history of Lowestoft, is its line of gallant seamen and distinguished admirals, who for two centuries held high commands in the fleets of England in many hard fought engagements with the navies of Holland, France, and Spain. The walls of the fine old parish church are rich in the sculptured memorials of these brave worthies, and we will devote a few lines to the chief exploits of the most remarkable of their number.

In 1665, it was Sir Thomas Allen who struck the first blow of the war with the Dutch, by attacking with eight sail their Smyrna fleet of forty ships. Their commander Bracknell was killed, and Allen, making prizes of four ships, drove the remainder into Cadiz harbour.

In the great sea fight off Lowestoft, June 3, 1665, Admirals Allen and Utber, and Captain Utber, of Lowestoft, held commands. The English fleet of one hundred and fourteen sail was commanded by the Duke of York, Prince Rupert, and Montague, Earl of Sandwich. The wind was adverse to the Dutch, but their Admiral Opdam had orders which left him no choice. A fierce but irregular engagement terminated in the defeat of the Dutch. Opdam's ship taking fire blew up, and his crew of 500, numbering volunteers of many of the noblest families of Holland perished. On board the Duke of York's ship, the Earl of Falmouth and Lord Muskerrey were killed. The head of Mr. Boyle, son of the Earl of Cork was shot off by a cannon ball, so close to the Duke, that he received a wound in

the hand from a portion of the skull. The Dutch fleet were saved from destruction by the gallantry of Cornelius Van Tromp, and by the supineness of the Duke of York.*

In the July fight, 1666, Monk and Prince Rupert, against De Ruyter and Van Tromp, Admiral Allen at the head of the White Squadron, with Admirals Tyddimann and Utber of Lowestoft, fell upon the Dutch van, routing it and killing the three Dutch Admirals who commanded that division †

The same year, Allen attacked the French fleet, boarding and capturing the Ruby of 54 guns.

In 1669, he sailed with a strong squadron to chastise the Algerines. This accomplished, he returned to England, worn out with the arduous services of many years. He was created a Baronet, and purchasing Somerleyton returned to spend there an honoured old age, dying in 1686, at the age of 73.‡

* This is the account handed down in successive English histories. Compare it with the diary of Pepys, secretary to the admiralty. Some time after, he had one of the captains of the English fleet to dine with him, and thus jots down their conversation. "He assures me we were beaten home the last June fight, and that the whole fleet was ashamed to hear of our bonfires.—He says the Dutch do fight in very good order, and we in none at all. He says that in the July fight both Prince Rupert and Holmes had their belly fulls, and were fain to go aside, though if the wind had continued, we had utterly beaten them. He do confess we be governed by a company of fools, and tears our ruin."

† After a long and sharp engagement, the Dutch fell into disorder and retreated under press of sail. Deserted by the Vice-admirals, the bravest of whom Cornelius the son of Van Tromp, and a bitter Orangeist felt towards him extreme jealousy and animosity—De Ruyter kept up the engagement until night. At the dawn of day he found himself with seven ships remaining, surrounded by twenty-two English ships, who, in the form of a crescent opened upon him a terrific fire. Monk, determined to capture his gallant foe, pressed upon his flagship. Closing round—the English ships fired upon him simultaneously a tremendous broadside. Then for a moment this great man lost the equanimity which was never seen before or after to desert him, and in the bitterness of his anguish exclaimed 'Oh my God, how wretched am I, that among so many thousand balls, not one will bring me death' The proposal of his son-in-law Cornelius de Witt, that they should rush in among the enemy, and sell their lives as dearly as possible, recalled him to himself. He felt how much his country yet required of him, and resuming his habitual composure he sustained the fight with unmoved steadiness during the whole of his retreat to Wulcheren, a retreat more glorious to him as it was considered by his contemporaries, than the most brilliant victory.

‡ There is a rare and most superb portrait of him engraved by Vandrebanc, after Kneller. A copy hangs in the hall at Somerleyton. On the north wall of Lowestoft Church, is a handsome monument with long elegiac epitaph to his youngest daughter Anne.

Next to Allen and the Uthers, on the roll of Lowestoft Admirals, was Sir John Ashby, who fought in the wars of William III, and Queen Anne. For the action with the French off Bantry Bay, 1689, Ashby and Cloudesley Shovel were knighted. This was a victory for the French, as was the one subsequently fought off the English South Coast. They were amply redeemed in the glorious triumph of La Hogue, 1691,—in which Ashby commanded the Blue Squadron,

Another gallant sea captain was Sir Andrew Leake, Captain of the Torbay, which bore the brunt of the attack on the French fleet in Vigo harbour. For this action, Sir Andrew, who from the grace and beauty of his person was called Queen Anne's handsome captain,—was knighted. In 1705, Sir Andrew, together with Captain Mighells, of Lowestoft,* took part in the capture of Gibraltar. On quitting Gibraltar, the fleet gave chase to the French. A severe action, called the Malaga fight, took place, and in this Sir Andrew Leake received a mortal wound. He was carried down to the surgeons to have it dressed, after which, wrapping a table cloth about his limbs, he placed himself in his elbowchair, and borne again to the quarter deck, he sat giving orders until he breathed his last.

Captain Thomas Arnold worthily closed this line of gallant seamen. In the running fight with the Spanish fleet, July, 1718, he was first Lieutenant of the *Superbe*, one of the fastest sailers, and in consequence, the most warmly engaged. Fastening upon the *Royal San Philip*, the Spanish Admiral's ship, the Captain of the *Superbe* hesitating on the best mode of attacking the huge vessel, consulted his Lieutenant, who promptly replied, their duty was to board her. This service devolved on Arnold, who immediately performed it, receiving a dangerous wound †

* Captain Mighells took a distinguished part in many naval engagements and rose to the rank of rear-admiral. Allen, Uther, Ashby, Mighells and Leake, were all related by blood or marriage.

† "It is customary at Lowestoft to hang flags across the streets at weddings. The colours of the *Royal Philip*, taken by Arnold, have frequently been made use of on these occasions."—GILLINGWATER.

Lowestoft, like its neighbour Yarmouth, was a Royal Burgh, and enjoyed the same advantageous privileges.* In the reign of Henry IV, a market and two fairs, held below the cliff of the village of Lowestoft, were granted to William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk. He was appointed at the same time his steward, to hold his courts, and forbidden to tax the said village in any manner, and all people holding of, and residing in the said village, were declared to be free from all custom and toll of their goods and vendable wares throughout the whole kingdom.

Sea bathing appears to have prevailed in the last century, chiefly along the coast from Yarmouth to Southampton. The first bathing machine at Lowestoft was introduced in 1768, from a Margate model. Its success was such that a second and third were speedily added. The season at that time commenced in August, and continued for six weeks. The town has long justly enjoyed a very high position in respect to its salubrity. Its elevation, its gravelly subsoil, its freedom from decaying sea-weed, all contribute to this. To second its natural advantages, the efforts of its Improvement Commissioners have not been wanting. Large sums have been spent in perfecting the sewerage and drainage.

From the old town a number of passages, termed *scores*, lead down to the Denes. These scores, barring their deep declivities, have a great resemblance to the *Rows* of Yarmouth. On the Denes, are carried on the operations connected with the fishery, which is an important staple of the town, rope walks, ship building, sail making, net drying, and the curing of herrings. Lowestoft enjoys a great advantage in the comparative isolation of this somewhat unsavoury quarter from its private dwellings. On these Denes, which stretch along the foot of the old town, with a width of about half a mile, during the French war were planted various batteries, and a fort commanding the Roads.

* Amongst these privileges, was exemption from serving on juries.

The North and South Roads of Lowestoft, are sheltered by the Corton and Newcombe Sandbanks. The riding at anchor in these is so remarkably easy during gales from the north to the west, as to procure for them, from seamen, the name of Abraham's Bosom. The Stanford channel between the Barnard and Holme Sands is constantly shifting, and to remedy this, the lower lighthouse on the beach is built of timber, removeable. The high lighthouse at the north extremity of the town, was erected by Trinity-House, in the time of Samuel Pepys. Its light is visible for twenty miles.

The High Street of Lowestoft, running north to south, extends a mile in length, and contains several effective public buildings, including the Town Hall. In the centre under a brewery is a Norman Crypt. This is probably the oldest portion of the town, but is rapidly losing every feature of antiquity. The sudden prosperity which has overtaken its old-fashioned race of tradesmen, has found its outward indication in a variety of plate glass fronts. Happily in exchanging their old lamps for new, their shops have not parted with their ancient aspect of well to do substantial commerce, for an anxious visage of lean and hungry gentility. The road winds picturesquely downwards to South Lowestoft, the new and fashionable sea-side quarter; the graceful tower and spire of St. John's terminating the prospect. As it quits the double line of shops, it becomes most pleasantly diversified with neat villas, set in trim gardens, and ornamental grounds, whose luxuriant shrubs bear witness to the genial climate. On our left is the Marine Parade, fronting the south battery, now converted into a Coast Guard Station. Adjoining it are the Battery Green and Bath-House.

Passing on the right the Railway Station, and crossing the Haven Bridge, we arrive at the South Pier, where may be most fitly told the circumstances which have led to the rapid rise of Lowestoft.

The most ancient maps of the district represent the Hundred of Lothingland as an island in the entrance of the river Yare, dividing it into two streams with embouchures at Yarmouth Haven, and at Kirkley Roads; the latter affording a deeper channel, and more direct passage for the Roman fleets to their stations on the shores of the large estuary which extended over an area of many miles inland. By this channel, the river Waveney communicated with the sea. The same receding of the sea, and gradual operation of the winds and tides, which led to the continual choking up of the Yarmouth Haven, closed up the Kirkley passage. As late as the seventeenth century, Camden writes of Kirkley as a haven town, admitting vessels of a small draught, and the Waveney was then as it is now, navigable to Bungay, a distance of many miles.

As the channel shrunk, the district was inundated, on the occasions of storms concurring with the spring tides. In 1652, a commission sat to inquire into the damage occasioned by these incursions. A breakwater seems to have been erected at a period somewhat earlier between Kirkley and Lowestoft, to secure the low grounds and marshes contiguous to the river. It appears to have been broken through by the sea, for in 1660, at a commission of the gentry of the county, held at the Swan Tavern, it was resolved that fortifications be immediately proceeded with at the sea beach, between Lowestoft and Kirkley, "at the sea shore where the bank or wall formerly was made, or thereabout." It was ordered also that the causeway at Mutford Bridge, decayed and broken down by the sea breach at Lowestoft, and made unpassable for foot passengers, and very dangerous to others, be repaired immediately. Henry Bacon, Esq., was empowered to treat with the celebrated Sir Cornelius Vermuyden, the engineer of the Bedford Level, for him to come down and view the work. The works carried out appear to have answered, and the Waveney ceased to com-

municate with the sea by Kirkley Haven, and the only irruption we hear of for many years, was that in December, 1717, when the sea forced its way over the embankment which separated it from the river, with such violence as to carry away Mutford Bridge, distant a mile and a half from the shore, and all the fish in the eastern part of the river were destroyed by the salt water. As late as 1712, on Pakefield fair day, a man was stationed near the church, with boots on, to carry children across the water. The sea gradually withdrew, whilst at the same time the waters of the Waveney receded westward. An isthmus was formed a quarter of a mile in breadth, which resisted all the attacks of the ocean.

So matters remained, until, nearly half a century ago, Norwich was smitten with the ambition to become a port, with a direct approach to the sea. Public meetings were called, and Sir W. Cubitt, the engineer, employed to make a survey for a ship canal. The first channel was intended to have an outfall into the Yarmouth Haven, south of the Breydon water, at an estimated cost of £36,000. It was impossible to expect that Yarmouth would view with equanimity this project for bringing sea-borne vessels to Norwich, and an opposition being anticipated, Sir W. Cubitt was directed to make a survey for a channel which should re-open Lake Lothing to the sea. The estimate for this, was £87,000. Mr. Telford, the government engineer was called in to inspect the two surveys, and recommended the adoption of the Yarmouth route. An attempt by the projectors to open communications with the corporation of Yarmouth, met with a refusal, and a determined opposition was commenced by the latter town. An act to obtain the necessary powers, *the Norwich and Lowestoft Navigation Bill*, was introduced into the House of Commons, in 1826. A committee sat upon it for sixteen days, and the bill was lost by a majority of five. A second bill brought in in 1827 was successful, and after an expenditure of

many thousands in litigation, the channel was forthwith commenced. Following the course of the Yare from Norwich to Reedham, a cut of nearly three miles is made across the marshes to the river Waveney, which is quitted again at Oulton Dyke. From Oulton Broad the channel flows through Lake Lothing and Lowestoft Harbour to the sea. The works included the cutting of a channel through the isthmus at Lowestoft, an inner harbour and locks, with stop gates to prevent the fresh waters of the Broad and rivers from flowing into the lake, and the tidal waters of the sea from flowing into the Broad or any of the adjoining lands. The lakes and rivers were dredged and deepened. The whole was completed in June, 1831, after an outlay of £140,000.

Sea-borne cargoes were navigated to Norwich to the great dismay of Yarmouth, which trembled for its commerce and haven dues. And, now, what had been predicted by many occurred. Those shifting sands, which have done the havens of the latter town so many an unkind turn, come forward to the rescue, and rapidly silted up the capital of the unlucky shareholders. The channel choked up, the capital of the company disappeared, together with £60,000 advanced by the Exchequer Loan Commissioners, who foreclosed their mortgages, and sold up the concern. In 1844, it was purchased by Sir Morton Peto, (for the sum it has been stated of £7000,) who proceeded to remedy the mistakes of his predecessors. A railway was formed to the town, and an outer harbour constructed, to act as a refuge for the numerous vessels daily passing along the coast, and as a barrier against the incursions of the sea, and the accumulation of sand. To carry out the project, a company was started with a capital of £200,000, and an act obtained in 1845. The railway was opened June, 1847. The inner harbour two miles in length, with one thousand yards of wharfage, accommodating vessels drawing 15 feet, is divided from the outer harbour by a ship lock 50 feet

wide, with a cast iron bridge to carry the high road.

The entrance having north and south piers, is 160 feet broad, 21 feet deep at low water. The head of each pier is circular, 60 feet diameter, with red light to each. They are built of timber, 14 feet above high water mark, and filled in with large boulders. They contain an area of 21 acres, the basin is 800 feet across, and will accomodate several hundred vessels. The South Pier, used as a promenade, is 1215 feet by 36, and is the finest on the Eastern Coast. The North Pier, devoted to business, is furnished with cattle sheds and a double tramway. It is used for the fishery, as well as the cattle trade with Denmark. The dry dock was built at a cost of £10,000 for the *North of Europe Steam Navigation Company*, which came to such a disastrous end a few years back. It measures 260 feet by 70, and has attached to it a steam factory. The port was severed from that of Yarmouth, in 1851.

On the centre of the South Pier, a handsome Reading Room has been erected, an invaluable shelter, and convenience. Here a band of music plays at stated hours daily. Balls are held in the season.

A powerful dredging engine is kept at work to clear the harbour. Along the margin of the inner harbour, a number of manufacturing establishments, cake and oil mills, coal, salt, and corn warehouses, &c., have sprung up, employing numerous workmen, the tenants of the many new streets which have grown up so rapidly in this quarter.

Besides its unrivalled South Pier, Lowestoft has constructed alongside it a noble esplanade, of a width and frontage unsurpassed, upwards of half a mile in length, and 40 feet in width, with sea wall terrace, seats, and statuary, continued by a terrace of concrete the entire way to Pakefield. Nothing can exceed the beauty of the sands stretched out before the handsome range of terraces which terminate with the Royal Hotel. This last splendid establishment, is fitted up with all the requisites of an Inn of the first class, and

includes restaurant, coffee rooms, billiard room, conservatory, salt and fresh water baths, mews, &c. More than one hundred beds can be made up at this, and the adjoining Harbour Inn, carried on under the same management. Looking round the southern sea side front of Lowestoft, the whole of which is new within the last few years,—on every side is felt the superintendence of one controlling mind, in the elegance and completeness of its appointments.

In the autumn, a regatta takes place under distinguished patronage, with a liberal scale of prizes, for which many of our most famous yachts have from time to time competed. No wonder that with its great advantages natural and acquired, Lowestoft has rapidly advanced in public estimation, and become one of the favourite resorts of those wondrous 'swells' in yachting costume, and of those charming English girls whom the graceful pencil of Leech has immortalised. Its quiet, and the healthiness of its climate, attract to it every year a number of invalids, who form a large and profitable section of its more permanent visitors. The rate of mortality is 17 in the 1000, or 8 less than the London average.

Visitors to the parish church, will have to apply as they proceed up the old town, at Mr. Barrett's, White Horse Street, for the keys.

The rectory of Lowestoft was granted by Henry I to the priory of St. Bartholomew, London. At the dissolution it was sold, and in the reign of Elizabeth, appears in the hands of William Burnell, gentleman, of London. In 1719, the great tithes were the property of three grand-daughters of Mr. Church, of Pakefield. Getting into chancery, they were put up for sale. A public subscription was raised by the exertions of the Rev. John Tanner, then vicar of Lowestoft, and they were purchased for £1050. To the liberality of this excellent man, the restoration to the vicarage of its alienated revenues was mainly owing.

The church dedicated to St. Margaret, lies about a mile north-westward from the pier. The destruction of the neighbouring churches of Newton and Dunwich by the incursions of the sea, probably led to the selection of a site so far inland. The present fabric, built upon the site of an older church, dates from the 14th century, the original tower 120 feet in height remaining. It appears to have been re-built by the priory soon after it came into their possession, the north aisle probably being erected at a later date. The fabric would have shared the fate of the adjoining churches of Corton and Kessingland after the dissolution, had not the town prevented the lands bequeathed by various pious donors for the repairs of the church, being alienated with the impropriation and priory endowments.*

In a district once peculiarly rich in noble churches, that of Lowestoft occupied a distinguished position, It is now second only to Yarmouth in magnitude. measuring externally 183 feet in length, 62 in width, and 43 in height, and its proportions, setting aside the tower, are very noble. The style is perpendicular. It has a nave of seven bays with low squareheaded clerestory windows, very lofty aisles, carved oak roof, a spacious chancel with noble east window, north and south porches. The windows are large and fine, the buttresses much enriched, and the east end has some good chequerwork of flint and stone. Viewed north or south, its great length has a striking effect. The tower has two arcades of lancets in its upper story, with central perpendicular windows. A stone crypt runs under the chancel floor, entered by a winding stair from the interior of the north wall. At the west end of the nave is a lofty narrow arch, supposed to have been used as the penitents' porch. At the east end of the south aisle, are the remains of an old font. Part

* These bequests include sixty seven acres, various tenements, &c., realizing upwards of £200 per annum, and have been the means of preserving this fine church from ruin.

of the rood loft was standing as late as 1710. The chancel has been repaired, and the walls wainscoted by its vicar, Mr. Tanner, and later successors. The great east window is filled with stained glass, the gift and workmanship of Mr. Robert Allen, a china manufacturer of Lowestoft. A large brass eagle formerly used as lectern, stands in the chancel, and still retains the old Black Letter Bible, laid on it for the use and profit of the laity at the Reformation.

Judging from the numerous matrices, this church must have been originally very rich in brasses.

Over the south porch is a chamber or parvise, called "the Maids Chamber." Here, before the Reformation says tradition, dwelt Elizabeth and Katharine, two maiden recluses, at whose cost were sunk two wells for the benefit of the poor. These in process of time were known as the "Basket Wells" a corruption of Bess and Kate. The gift was of great value, good water being until a recent date, an article of scarcity in Lowestoft, and sold by the pail full. A plot of land called and used to this day as "the drying ground," was included in the gift. In the empty chamber hang the musty banners used at the celebration of the peace of 1814, painted with the flags of our European allies, and inscriptions which now read out of date. "Long live the Emperor of Austria," "God bless the Emperor Alexander the Great," &c. On the roof of this porch are the emblems of the Trinity and Passion.

The font once of remarkable beauty, is of great antiquity. It is ascended by three stone steps,—on the upper one was an inscription now illegible. The rich series of twenty-four canopied figures in two ranges which surround the bowl and stem, were irreparably injured by the fanatic, whose sacrilegious doings at Gorleston we have already described. Mr. Jessope paid a visit to Lowestoft church, and the then vicar, the Rev. James Rowse, thus records it.

"In the same yeare after, on the 12th of June, there came one Jissope with a commission from the Earle of Manchester to take

away from gravestones all inscriptions one wch hee found 'orate pro anima.' A wretched commissioner, not able to read or find out that wch his commission enjoined him to remove: hee took up in our church soe much brasses, as hee sould to Mr. Josiah Wild for five shillings, wch was afterwards, contrary to my knowledge, runn into the litle bell that hangs in the town house. Thear wearr taken up in the middle alley, twelve peece, belonging to twelve severall generations of the Jettors.

In the chancell, one belonging to Bpp. Scroope; the words there, 'Richardus Scroope, Episcopus Dromorocensis, et hujus ecclie vicarius, hic jacet, qui obiit 10 May, anno 1364.'

There was alsoe by this Jyssop taken up in the vicar's chancell one the north side of the church, a fair peece of brasse with this inscription: 'Hic jacet Johannes Goodknapp, hujus ecclesie vicarius, qui obiit 4^{to} Novembris, anno Dni. 1442.'"

Several penances are recorded in the books of Lowestoft church,—Margaret Newton, clothed with white, with a white wand in her hand, and having a paper pinned on her breast, describing her crime,—did penance in Lowestoft church, December 8, 1751.

William Whiston, translator of Josephus, the celebrated mathematician and divine, was instituted to the vicarage of Lowestoft in 1698, and retained it until 1703, when he succeeded Sir Isaac Newton in his professorship at Cambridge. The zealous labours of this extraordinary man whilst at Lowestoft, are detailed in his curious memoirs.—

"In the year 1698, Bishop Moor gave me the living of Lowestoft cum Kessingland, by the sea-side, in Suffolk. I had here about 2000 souls under my inspection, when I set myself to do my duty, and really to take curam animarum, care of the souls that

* There is an error in the good vicar's memoranda, which may be pardonably attributed to the irritating circumstances under which it was written. Thomas Scroope, Bishop of Dromore, and Vicar of Lowestoft, died January 15, 1491. Fuller in his *British Worthies*, says that he was derived from the Scroops of Yorkshire, and that he was I. a Benedictine, but found that order too loose for his conscience; II. a Carmelite of Norwich, as a stricter profession; III. an Anchorite for twenty years at Norwich; IV. under a dispensation from the Pope, became Bishop of Dromore; V. quitting his bishoprick, he returned to his solitary life, yet so, that weekly he traversed the surrounding villages bare foot, preaching the Decalogue. He lived to be extremely aged, for about the year 1425, clothed in sackcloth, and girt with an iron chain he used to cry out in the streets, "that the new Jerusalem, the Bride of the Lamb, was shortly to come down from Heaven, prepared for her spouse; and that with great joy he saw the same in the Spirit." He lies beneath a large stone in the chancel. The whole of the large elaborate brass which covered it has disappeared. Weever in his *Funeral Memorials* has preserved a portion of the epitaph.

were now committed to me. I provided me a very good curate, or assistant, Mr. John Troughton, who also taught a small school there; for which he made £25, or £30 a year, besides the £30 that I allowed him, while yet I could hardly promise myself, clear, above £120 a year. * * * I here set up public prayers, morning and evening, every day in a chapple within the town; and therein to encourage a more numerous and constant attendance, I used, after a while, besides a lesson out of the New Testament, that abridgment of the public prayers, which had been before collected by some good man, and published under the title of 'The Common Prayer-Book the Best Companion.' Which, when I informed Bishop Lloyd of, he highly approved of what I had done; and ordered that book to be bought for him. I constantly preached twice a day at the church, which was three furlongs out of the town; and all the summer season, at least, I had a catechetick lecture at the chapel in the evening; designed more for the instruction of the adult, than for the children themselves; to which lecture the dissenters also would come, and by which I always thought I did more good than by my sermons. * * * I also took care that my curate preached once a day at Kessingland, and once at Corton, a very poor, neighbouring, ignorant village, of hardly any revenues, and formerly abandoned to diversions on the Lord's days: while every month I gave them of Kessingland a sermon myself, in the morning, and a catechetick lecture in the afternoon. I also a little tried there to instruct the private families on week days at home; but found their heads and hands so engaged about their husbandry, that I could only do it in the evenings of Lord's days, when they were more at leisure."

The narrative of his subsequent expulsion from the university and the church for Arianism, the persecutions he courted, and the continued strife in which he seems to have delighted, have been frequently written. He died in 1752, in his 85th year. As one of the prominent public characters of his day, many shrewd sayings are recorded of him.*

* Being once in company with Addison, Pope, Walpole, Craggs, and others, the question was started whether a Secretary of State could be an honest man, consistently with the duties of his station. The appeal being made to Whiston, he, after some pressing, gave his opinion that it would be of advantage to such an officer to speak openly what he knew, and declare his intentions without disguise. Craggs remarked that "It might answer for a fortnight, but no longer." "Did you ever Mr. Secretary," returned Whiston, "try it for a fortnight?" Queen Caroline occasionally honoured him with an audience. As she knew him to be sincere, she once desired him to acquaint her what was particularly found fault with by censors in her conduct. He replied, that her habit of talking at chapel was mentioned with disapprobation. She promised amendment and proceeded to inquire what other faults were imputed to her. "When your Majesty," says he "has amended this, I will tell you of the next."

The Rev. John Tanner who succeeded to the vicarage in 1708, dying in 1759, is justly described by Gillingwater, the historian of Lowestoft, as, "a person of the most eminent piety and integrity, a truly primitive pastor, and of the most exemplary life and conversation." He held the living for fifty years, and his long ministry was spent in the continual incitement of his congregation to good works, and a holy life. In addition to the recovery of the revenues of the church, and his reparation of its fabric, he procured the rebuilding of Kirkley church, and the restoration of its impropriations to Kessingland.* He was the brother of Thomas Tanner, Bishop of St. Asaph, at whose death he completed and published his laborious "Notitia Monastica." To the last he preserved his vigour of mind and activity.

The Rev. Robert Potter, the accomplished Greek Scholar and Critic; the translator of *Æschylus*, *Sophocles* and *Euripides*, was vicar of Lowestoft, and died in 1804, at the age of 83.

The record of the successive vicars of Lowestoft, dates as far back as 1308. Four guilds were attached to the church, prior to the Reformation. Its registers commence in 1561, with 19 marriages, 59 baptisms, and 47 burials for that year.

On the walls are many fine monuments to naval and military commanders, and to the principal families of the district, and in the north aisle where was formerly a vestry, is a quaint inscription. "Here lie your painful ministers,"† no unapt laudation of the long line of able

* Whiston fell into reduced circumstances, and for many years Mr. Tanner sent him a present of £5. The Rev. James Alderson, Dissenting Minister at Lowestoft, falling ill, received from Mr. Tanner, a parcel, which he had some difficulty in opening. He found inclosed five guineas, which Mr. Tanner wrote he hoped he would accept, and that he packed them so close, that his servant might not know of it.

† "Here lie your Pain Full,
Ministers. Lament;
You Must Account How You
This Life Have Spent;
Worthy Your Tears, He's Dead,
His Worke Is Done,

and laborious pastors, Lowestoft has been privileged to receive within its sanctuary.

The large churchyard is filled with stones, inscribed with the customary verse of four lines.

"See! here lamented wives, and every wife,
The pride and comfort of her husband's life;
Here to her spouse, with every virtue graced,
His mournful widow has a trophy placed;
And here 'tis doubtful if the duteous son,
Or the good father, be in praise out-done.

"Tis well, but let nor love nor grief believe,
That we assent (who neither loved nor grieve,
To all that praise which on the tomb is read,
To all that passion dictates for the dead."—CRABBE.

A search of several hours for epitaphs, rising out of commonplace, met with no satisfactory result. We transcribed but two, neither of them original.

To Thomas Hunton, by his widow Rachel Hunton,
"If life, was a merchandise
That money could buy
The rich would live for ever,
And the poor only, might die."

The one which follows is a copy of Benjamin Franklin's, and is quoted solely for its detestable bad taste.

"The body of Lewis Webb, schoolmaster,
Like the cover of an old book,
Its contents worn out, and stript
Of its lettering and gilding,
Lies here food for the worms;
Yet the work shall not be lost,
For it shall as he believed,

Appear once more in a new and more beautiful edition, corrected and revised by the author."

Whilst loitering about the churchyard, we observed several funerals come up its pathway, and were struck with the number of attendant mourners. We counted twelve couples following after one apparently quite humble funeral. The length of time for which mourning hat-bands are worn, strikes the eye of

Live 'What He Taught You,
For His Glass Is Run.
His Soule's In Blisse, The Dust
His Body Takes.
Thus Wee Loose All, While
Heaven & Earth Part Stakes.
But Patiently Await, He
Shall Arise,
By An Habeas Corpus, At
The Last Assize. "

visitors, as a usage peculiar to this coast. The popular prejudice against burying on the north side, seems to have been strong in the district. In the graveyards at Lowestoft, Southwold, and other parishes, it appears to have been overcome but very recently, and in some cases from necessity.

The distance of the church from the town, was felt to be an inconvenience from the first. There were two, if not three chapels in the town, prior to the Reformation, one on the south side, near Kirkley, its site still marked by Chapel Lane. This is said to have been swallowed up by the sea, when in the time of Henry VIII, a port was destroyed, half a mile eastward of the present beach. Another stood in the centre of the town, built on arches,—at the Dissolution, it was converted into an almshouse, part being used as a Town House. In 1570, it was re-fitted for divine service, and used until too decayed, up to 1676. In 1698, it was rebuilt. From the first it was a small mean structure. In 1832, a vigorous effort was made, which resulted in the erection of St. Peter's Chapel of Ease, at a cost of £2,600; consecrated August 15, 1833. Here service is performed in the morning and evening, and at the old church in the afternoon.

For the accommodation of visitors, and the new and populous quarter which has sprung up on the south side within the last few years, the fine church of St. John the Evangelist, was opened, July 1854. This is a beautiful fabric of decorated Gothic, with lofty spire, and spacious chancel, nave, and transepts, with large and rich traceried windows. Mr. Clemence was the architect. It seats eight hundred, and was built by the Messrs. Lucas, who in addition to their large establishments in London, have others in this neighbourhood, and have been the chief constructors of the churches, chapels, public buildings, and terraces of modern Lowestoft. Visitors cannot fail to be struck with the excellence of the brickwork of these builders.

The Methodist body is numerous in Lowestoft, their

founder, Wesley, having visited the town in 1761, and on several subsequent occasions. Their first chapel was erected in 1776, in Frary Lane. This was the scene of the striking incident recorded in the life of the poet Crabbe, by his son, on the occasion of a visit to the neighbourhood,—“one evening we all adjourned to a dissenting chapel, to hear the venerable John Wesley, on one of the last of his peregrinations. He was exceedingly old and infirm, and was attended, almost supported in the pulpit, by a young minister on each side. The chapel was crowded to suffocation. In the course of the sermon, he repeated, though with an application of his own, the lines from Anacreon.—

“Oft am I by women told,
 Poor Anacreon! thou grow’st old;
 See thine hairs are falling all,
 Poor Anacreon! how they fall!
 Whether I grow old or no,
 By these signs I do not know;
 But this I need not to be told,
 ’Tis time to live, if I grow old.”

My father was much struck with his reverend appearance, and his cheerful air, and the beautiful cadence he gave to these lines; and, after the service introduced himself to the patriarch, who received him with benevolent politeness.”

In the London Road, two new chapels of effective design and appearance, have been erected within the last few years, that on the west for the Baptist body, the one opposite for the use of the Independents. This body was attached to the old Congregational Church at Yarmouth, and we read in Gillingwater, that on the days of monthly communion, after morning service, the minister and members mounted their horses, and rode over to Yarmouth, to join their brethren in the celebration of the Lord’s Supper. Their first chapel was a barn in Blue Anchor Lane. In 1689, the minister was Mr. Emlyn, a man of note in his day.* Several eminent men have filled the

* His parents were of the church, but their attachment to the non-conformist divines, ejected about that period led to their son being brought up amongst them. After a residence at the university of Cambridge, he made his first essay as a preacher at the Cripple Gate meeting house. As chaplain to the

ministerial office in the Lowestoft Independent Church, we may instance Mr. Alderson, grand-father of Justice Alderson; and Godwin, father of the author of "Caleb Williams."

George II on his return from Hanover, January, 1736, landed here. When the royal barge with his Majesty, the Countess of Yarmouth, and his retinue approached the shore, a body of sailors uniformly dressed, waded into the sea, and meeting the barge, took it on their shoulders with all on board, and carried it to the beach. Here his Majesty was met by Mr. Jex, a resident gentleman, with his carriage. He conducted the king to his house, acting as coachman, and by his unskilful driving, narrowly occasioned the loss of his sovereign's life. Here, in 1784, landed John Adams, the first ambassador from the United States.

From the sea, Lowestoft has a very beautiful appearance; crowning the summit of a bold headland, Countess of Donegal, he passed into Ireland, and became extremely popular with the congregations of Dublin. Driven thence by the wars in 1688, he accepted a ministry at Lowestoft. The reading of Sherlock on the Trinity, is stated to have shaken his belief. It led his friend Mannlug, a non-conformist divine, into socinianism, and himself ultimately into unitarianism. On the pacification of Ireland, he was urgently invited back to Dublin, and accepted the call in 1691. In 1702, he was accused of heterodoxy. He admitted his unitarian scruples, and protesting that he had no design to cause strife amongst them, he offered to leave the congregation peaceably. He was however brought before a meeting of the Dublin ministers, prohibited from preaching, and obliged to withdraw to England. But some zealous Dissenters resolved to prosecute him with the utmost rigour, obtained a warrant from the Lord Chief Justice to seize him and his books, and went with the keeper of Newgate to execute it upon him. Bail was at first refused, but subsequently accepted for £800. On his trial he was found guilty. He was moved to retract, and refused. He was sentenced to a year's imprisonment, with a fine of a £1000 to the Queen, to be in prison till it was paid, and to find security for his good behaviour during life. He was told that the pillory was his due, but because he was a man of letters it was not inflicted. He was then led round the four courts with a paper on his breast signifying his crime. After lying in prison more than two years, his fine was mitigated to £70, and on payment he was discharged. A small congregation gathered round him, Archbishop Tenison was urged to suppress his preaching, but declined to molest him. Emlyn died in 1741. He was a popular and much admired preacher, with a portly presence, a strong clear voice, and a graceful delivery. His life and writings were published in 3 vols. in 1754. He was an intimate friend of Whiston, and Dr. Samuel Clarke. We condense this account from GILLINGWATER, and we honour the memory of the worthy barber for the outburst of indignation with which he apostrophises the perversion of Emlyn.—"To behold a learned, sensible, and pious divine, thus degraded, insulted, and punished, for no other crime than that of mere difference in opinion."

forming the eastern boundary of Lothingland, its villas relieved and diversified with hanging gardens, and fine trees running down to the water's edge. Its fresh sea breezes, and comparative quiet, have led to its being chosen as the summer retreat of many families of East Anglia. Here, for a number of years, Dr. Whewell, of Trinity College, has had his cottage on the cliff. Here also resided the late Baron Alderson, the distinguished member of a local family, celebrated for their genius and ability.

Lowestoft Ness, the broad tract of sand lying in front of the old town, exhibits an unusual geological formation. Whilst for centuries past the action of the sea upon this coast has ingulphed vast tracts of land, towns, and villages,—at this point, and at one or two lower down, its tidal currents, aided by the combined influences of shoals, winds, and vegetation, have gradually raised up a succession of ramparts and defences of sand, strong enough to resist its own incursions, and to contract its usurping limits. In a celebrated geological controversy, waged in this district about thirty years ago, it was laid down by one of the contending parties as an indisputable axiom, that “it is physically impossible that water, even in a state of the most impetuous agitation, should raise any permanent barrier against its own course.” In reply, amongst other examples to the contrary, the formation of Lowestoft Ness was instanced. Wherever cliffs and rocks are wanting, nature has substituted defences of sand, accumulated by the winds, preserved by peculiar plants, and rarely requiring the aid of man to render them effectual. At this point the influence of the sea current, running between the land and the Holme Sand, has aided the formation and growth of a natural embankment. As each heavy storm from the north east, has flung on shore sand and shingle, the marram plant has rapidly bound it firmly together with its interlacing net work of shoots, and, thus a series of concentric ridges have been formed; each fresh

outwork protecting its predecessor. The same process may be witnessed at Covehithe, where, stretching across an old inlet of the sea, it now excludes it from the low valley which is now partly occupied by a small fresh water lake. Two miles south, the same circumstances are repeated on a larger scale, in the embankment across the valley and broad of Easton. The growth of these ridges are from the north downwards.

THE ENVIRONS OF LOWESTOFT

abound in scenes of great natural beauty. We have already described part of the coast lying between Lowestoft and Yarmouth. There is no one spot in the entire district, to our mind, more enchanting on a sunny day, than the Heath which crowns the summit of the hill, on which Lowestoft is built. It is within easy walking distance from any part of the town, and will furnish many delightful rambles and lounges. From its lofty eminence the sea views are superb, and for its inland charms, what better description can be given than in the lines of the poet, who has pourtrayed with such matchless vividness, the scenery of his native Suffolk:—

“First o’er a barren heath beside the coast
Orlando rode, and joy began to boast

This neat low gorse, said he, with golden bloom
Delights each sense, is beauty, is perfume;
And this gay ling, with all its purple flowers,
A man at leisure might admire for hours;
This green-fringed cup-moss has a scarlet tip,
That yields to nothing but my Luara’s lip;
And then how fine this herbage! men may say
A heath is barren; nothing is so gay:
Barren or bare to call such charming scene
Argues a mind possess’d by care and spleen.”—CRABBE.

Seats have been placed upon it at convenient intervals, and the visitor may vary his enjoyment of its exhilarating breezes, by descending down the ravines on to the firm and broad sands below. We cannot refrain from drawing once more upon the exquisite landscape painting of Crabbe. In the whole range of his poetry, there is no passage more deeply moving than that which depicts the parting hours of the condemned felon, as the scenes of his innocent childhood and early love float across his last slumber on earth. Seated here, as we read, we have but to raise our eyes, and the scene lives before us with an intense reality:—

“Yes! all are with him now, and all the while
Life’s early prospects and his Fanny’s smile:
Then come his sister and his village friend,
And he will now the sweetest moments spend
Life has to yield;—No! never will he find

Again on earth such pleasure in his mind :
 He goes through shrubby walks these friends among,
 Love in their looks and honour on the tongue :
 Nay, there's a charm beyond what nature shows,
 The bloom is softer and more sweetly glows ;—
 Pierced by no crime, and urged by no desire
 For more than true and honest hearts require,
 They feel the calm delight and thus proceed
 Through the green lane,—then linger in the mead,—
 Stray o'er the heath in all its purple bloom,—
 And pluck the blossom where the wild bees hum ;
 Then through the broomy bound with ease they pass
 And press the sandy sheep-walk's slender grass,
 Where dwarfish flowers among the gorse are spread,
 And the lamb browses by the linnet's bed ;
 Then 'cross the bounding brook they make their way
 O'er its rough bridge—and there behold the bay !—
 The ocean smiling to the fervid sun—
 The waves that faintly fall and slowly run—
 The ships at distance and the boats at hand ;
 And now they walk upon the sea-side sand,
 Counting the number and what kind they be.
 Ships softly sinking in the sleepy sea :
 Now arm in arm, now parted, they behold
 The glitt'ring waters on the shingles roll'd :
 The timid girls, half dreading their design,
 Dip the small foot in the retarded brine,
 And search for crimson weeds, which spreading flow,
 Or lie like pictures on the sand below :
 With all those bright red pebbles, that the sun
 Through the small waves so softly shines upon ;
 And those live lucid jellies which the eye
 Delights to trace as they swim glittering by :
 Pearl-shells and rubied star-fish they admire,
 And will arrange above the parlour fire,—
 Tokens of bliss !—' Oh ! horrible ! a wave
 Roars as it rises—save me, Edward ! save !'
 She cries :—Alas ! the watchman on his way
 Calls, and lets in—truth, terror, and the day !”

Near the lighthouse are the remains of an old cross, with an octagonal base. No account of it is known. Half a mile beyond it on our way to Gunton, is the Warren House. Here was situate the Porcelain Manufactory for which Lowestoft was famed last century, and of whose productions choice specimens exist in the cabinets of collectors, and the cupboards of old families of the district. It originated in the discovery by Mr. Hewling Luson*

* His mother, Elizabeth Hewling, was a daughter of Benjamin Hewling, an eminent Turkey merchant in London, who married a daughter of William Kiffin, a celebrated Baptist minister. Another of Kiffin's daughters married Joseph Hayes, a banker in London, who was tried for his life in 1684, for sending money to Sir Thomas Armstrong, an outlaw. Hannah Hewling (another daughter of Benjamin Hewling) married Major Henry Cromwell, son of Henry Cromwell, some time high steward of Yarmouth, the second son of the Protector. Benjamin and William Hewling, the two sons of the above-named Benjamin Hewling, were publicly executed in 1685,—the one at Taunton, and the other at Lyme, for having participated in the rebellion under the Duke of Monmouth; and were commiserated on account of their youth and amiable qualities. Their sisters,—Mrs. Luson and Mrs. Hayes,—presented a

of Gunton Hall, of a bed of fine clay upon the estate, equal in quality to that of the celebrated Delft ware. He attempted to establish a china manufactory, and records that he was foiled by the jealousy of the London makers, who tampered with his workmen. Established in 1751, it was extinguished in the space of the half century. At Gunton Hall, the sport of hawking was revived not many years back, by Mr. J. D. Downes. A pair of his falcons used to breed in the tower of Corton Church, and their nestlings were regularly taken and trained for the chase, the clerk having a retaining fee for their preservation.

GUNTON.

The church of St. Peter, a humble fabric with round tower, stands north of the old hall, embosomed amid lofty and venerable elms.

We can return by the coach road, which runs between Yarmouth and Lowestoft along high ground through a pleasant and fertile district, amid luxuriant hedgerows perfumed with honey-suckle. Skirting Corton, and Gunton, we traverse on our left a richly wooded country.

An excursion may be made from Lowestoft across the centre of Lothingland, and round the domain of Somerleyton, by Blundeston, Flixton, Lound, Ashby, returning by Oulton. It will take us through a well timbered district, traversed by rural lanes, some of great beauty. The scenery is of an aspect altogether different to the coast line on our right, or the flat landscape spread below for many a league on the left.

BLUNDESTON.

Blundeston House, an unpretending mansion; celebrated for the beauty of its scenery, its verdant lawns, and lake. The poet Gray was an occasional guest of its owner, Mr. Nicholls; an aged pollard oak and a summer house, are pointed out as among his favourite haunts. The exterior of the church has a singular effect. The nave and chancel are of unusually lofty pitch, and thatched. The round tower huddled against the west end, small in diameter,

petition to King James on behalf of their unhappy brothers; but the monarch was inexorable. Mr. Hewling Luson was a rigid Independent; and he and his brother, Robert Luson, who resided in a house on the South Quay, (now in the occupation of Rear-Admiral Sir Eaton Travers, K.H.) were on terms of intimate friendship with Mrs. Bridget Bendish, (the eccentric grand-daughter of Oliver Cromwell) who then lived in Southtown. She gave to Mr. Robert Luson some costly dresses, which had once appeared at the court of the Protector. This lady was celebrated for her wit and beauty. After surviving her husband for many years, she died in 1726, at the extraordinary age of 116 years. During the last fifty years of her life she resided in London in strict retirement; occasionally amusing herself with the inspection of her curious wardrobe. Some of these dresses formed part of a collection of court costumes, which was exhibited in London, in 1834.—PALMER'S GREAT YARMOUTH.

narrowing as it rises upwards and but little higher than the church, has the appearance of a chimney rather than a steeple. The interior is good, and has a carved rood screen, once very richly painted and gilded, as a portion still testifies. The oak benches are of good workmanship.

FLINTON.

The ruins of the Church lie some little distance from the road. They comprise four walls, enclosing a space 50 feet by 10. The fabric must have been of an unusually small extent.

LOUND.

The Church. (St. John the Baptist,) has chancel, nave, and round tower. Early English, plain but of fine proportions. The chancel is good, with perpendicular east window, piscina and sedilia. There is a rood screen, and an octangular font with emblems of the evangelists.

ASHBY

Church, (St. Mary,) chancel and nave with lancet windows, circular tower, the upper part octangular and of later period, low, square, mutilated font, piscina and credence shelf, east window, early decorated but blocked up. Many ancient gravestones lie on the floor, some with crosses.

OULTON.

Oulton Church, (St Michael,) has several features of interest. It was originally cruciform with centre tower. The south transept is now in ruins. The arms of Fastolf are painted in many parts of the ceiling. The nave and lower parts of the tower are Norman; the chancel and transept, early Decorated and very excellent. The font, octangular, richly sculptured with lions and tudor roses. Though much despoiled, the church contains some fine brasses. In the chancel is a full length in sacerdotal vestments of Sire Adam Bacon, Presbyter,—another to William Bedingfield,—the brasses of Sir John Fastolfe and Katherine his wife, 1445, were stolen in 1857. Oulton High House, built by the Hobarts, 1560, has a fine carved mantle piece of the period. The House is now converted into a boarding school. It was shut up for several years, and had the enviable reputation in the district of the haunted house, “a wild huntsman and his hounds and a white lady carrying a poisoned cup, nightly issuing forth to make their spectral rounds.”

A VISIT TO SOMERLEYTON HALL.

For centuries Somerleyton was the seat of the lords of Lothingland. We have already described (page 188) the successive ownerships of this fair domain. It is with the Jernegans to whom the manor of Somerleyton descended by marriage from the Fitz Osberts, A.D., 1305, and who retained it for three hundred years,

until the Suffolk branch became merged in female heirs, that its past history is chiefly bound up,—that family, together with the Fastolfs, and Pastons, playing a considerable part in the local history. It was sold in the reign of James I to the Wentworths. Sir John Wentworth was one of the chiefs of the cavalier party of the district during the civil wars, and Cromwell and his troopers paid several visits to the old hall, making free with its forage, and carrying away its musquets. The village of Somerleyton appears like its master to have been staunchly loyal, and was harrassed in consequence by the quartering of soldiers, and the exaction of forced loans by the partisans of the commonwealth. Ireton, in 1648, summoned the bailiffs of Yarmouth to meet him in conference at Somerleyton Hall, and there delivered to them “the Lord General’s peremptory command, either to ingarrison their town, or to demolish their walls and fortifications.” A rousing bon-fire and bountiful distribution of bread and beer, celebrated the restoration of King Charles II.

In the church re-built by Sir Morton Peto, M.P., are some old monuments and a rood screen. Mr. Jessope made a visit here to the utter confusion of the brasses and stained glass. The church-wardens appear to have paid this worthy a fine of 6*s.* 8*d.* for ‘certayne painted glasse being in the church windowes.’ An altar tomb within the communion rails, to the memory of Sir Thomas Jernegan,* bore formerly according to Camden and Weever, the epitaph.—

Jesu Christ, both God and man,
Save thy servant Jernegan.

under the chancel floor lie other members of the family. In the north wall of the chancel, is a costly monument to Sir John and Lady Wentworth, sculptured with their busts in costume. Here also lies interred that scourge of Yarmouth, the stout old admiral Sir Thomas Allen.

The Somerleyton estate passed from the Wentworths to John Garneys, Sir John’s sister’s son, member of an ancient Suffolk family who bore the alliterative motto of “God’s Grace Guides Garneys.” His son sold it to Sir Thomas Allen, from whom by descent it came to the Anguishes, who became extinct in 1843. It next fell by heirship to Lord Sydney Godolphin Osborne, son of the Duke of Leeds, by whom the year following it was sold to the present Sir Morton Peto, M.P., who has transformed the old mansion into a princely residence, in the Anglo Italian style.

The old Hall of Somerleyton stood high among the finest specimens of brick mansions in England. Fuller, in his *English Worthies* has ranked amongst the many fair houses of the gentry in this county Sommerly Hall, nigh Yarmouth, well answering the name thereof; for here sommer is to be seen in the depth of

* We believe this has been removed to the exterior, under the chancel window.

winter; in the pleasant walks, beset on both sides with fir trees, green all the year round, besides other curiosities.

Somerleyton is shewn on *Wednesdays*, by ticket, to be obtained at the Royal Hotel, Lowestoft, and from James Peto, Esq., the Esplanade. The house lies two miles from the Railway Station, and as the trains do not run very convenient, a party of visitors will find it much pleasanter to engage a conveyance. The country round is interesting, and the park and village worth exploration. Strangers are usually directed in the village to the lodge entrance on the north side, the farthest from the station and the approach from Yarmouth. From Lowestoft carriages enter by the east side, and drive up to the north side where the winter gardens and conservatories lie, which are shewn before the house. No glimpse of it is obtained until you are close upon it.

Passing in at the North Lodge and alongside a screen of evergreens, the entrance is to the right at the chapel. Here the gardeners take the visitors in charge, and conduct them through kitchen and fruit gardens, extensive ranges of forcing pits and vineries, hot houses for peaches, figs, &c., and conservatories, all fitted up with the latest appliances of science. From these we emerge by a sloping lawn of velvet turf, facing the winter garden and north front, upon a veritable scene of fairy land. Before us in a setting of old forest trees, cedars, aged thorns, clumps of azeleas and rhododendrons, rise, as if evoked by a magician's wand, a range of fantastic palaces of glass, their many sheeny domes and pinnacles sparkling like diamond facets in the noon-day sun, and their contours and traceried outlines of graceful arabesques, backed and thrown into relief by the deep red brickwork of the towers, gables, and campaniles of the Hall.

On the left is an aviary of gold and silver pheasants, screening a part of the offices. The area covered by the Winter Garden is a hundred feet square. Within, the decorations are Renaissance, of a light and elegant character. Four main alleys converge under the great Mosque dome, beneath which is a fountain supported on a rockery of ferns by four dolphins, and surmounted by a marble statue of the *Nymph of the Lily*. From the central alley numerous aisles diverge to an outer one, circumscribing the building. The roof is supported by light iron columns, covered with roses and beautiful creepers. Wire baskets filled with choice flowering plants are suspended overhead. Parterres of rare exotics and large majolica vases filled with flowers, occupy the ground space. At the corners of the building are placed the following life sized marble statuary,—*Venus at her toilet*,—*the Sea Nymph*,—*Pandora*, by A. Hautmann of Florence. At the centre of the east side, and facing the fountain, backed by an immense mirror, are two statues larger than life, *the Spanish Dancers*, by J. Hautmann. The fountain figure is by J. Thomas. Under the central dome, grouped round the fountain, are four models in plaister, by Thomas,

L'Allegro, Ophelia, Lady of the Lake, Lady of Erin. The wall spaces are filled with enamel tiling of chaste design. The south side opens to a beautiful suite of rooms,—the Morning, the Withdrawing, and the Billiard rooms. Aviaries of singing birds are placed at intervals throughout the garden. In the corridor communicating with the palm house, is a fern grotto and fountain. Nestled in the luxuriant tropical foliage of this last, is a statue of *Hymen*, by Bystrom of Rome. The entire range is fitted with gas,—argand burners with electro plate reflectors, rings of jet running round the domes and cupolas.

It requires but little effort of the imagination to picture the surpassing beauty of this winter garden, when illuminated, and in the balmy air of a midsummer night. It is a scene beyond the painter's art, for where would be the perfume of the flowers, the plashing of the fountains, or the notes of the birds. Coleridge may have seen it, when in his charmed opium slumber, he dreamed of the Abyssinian maid and the palace of Kubla Khan. Its most perfect realization will be found in that marvel of word painting, suffused with sensuous, passionate beauty, the "Recollections of the Arabian Nights" of the poet laureate.

From the winter garden we pass to the Italian garden, facing the western front. The exterior of the winter garden, decorated with Caen stone pilasters, capitals, sculptured female heads, vases, &c., by Thomas, deserves examination. In recesses at the south entrance are figures of *Flora* and *Ceres*, and at the four angles of the cupola overhead are four youthful marble figures of the *Four Seasons*.

The west front, is the principal one. It opens upon a broad gravelled terrace, 300 feet in length, ornamented by carved stone seats, marble and Serves vases, bronze twisted gas columns, and at the two extremities, marble statuary of *Night and Morning*, by Thomas. Three flights of ten steps lead down to the grand parterre, or Dutch garden, laid out in geometrical patterns, by Nesfield. There is one very similar by the same eminent landscape gardener at Castle Howard. The centre pattern of this, is technically described as being based upon the old church hinge, highly elaborated and finished with box embroidery, after the French style. In the centre is an equatorial sun dial, of open work with zodiac belt, gilt, raised on a rich marble pedestal of Renaissance work. The dwarf parapet wall is surmounted with numerous stone vases of varied form and design.

From the sun dial we look southwards, down a noble avenue, 450 feet in length, of lime trees of remarkable size and beauty, the glory of Somerleyton for many generations past. At its termination is placed a marble statue of the late Mr. Henry Peto; the church of Somerleyton crowning the prospect. Two fine figure groups adorn the entrance of the avenue, *the Hunter restraining his dogs*, and *the death of the Stag*.

Near to the house, on the south, and parallel with the limes, is a double avenue of fine elm trees. A shrubbery of evergreens screens this side of the Hall, which is set off by a lofty campanile tower, commanding from its summit a wide and extensive panorama; at its foot are the business apartments of the owner of Somerleyton.

We have now arrived at the entrance porch under the central tower, where our conductor hands us over to the inmates of the Hall. This west front is 150 feet in length, composed of two wings, with large bay windows, united by a fine central tower; a bold perforated parapet surmounts the facade. Engravings of the old Hall, a Jacobean structure, part of which is eased by the present, give a somewhat similar arrangement of this front. It had the same projecting wings and centre, the gables rounding off. It is said to have masked a still older Tudor edifice.

The entrance corridor of this front, lined with old wainscot, leads into a staircase hall, two stories in height, and pannelled. A staircase gallery overhead with heavy balustrades, runs round three sides. Over the massive stone chimney piece is the fresco of '*Chivalry*,' by Maclise. Figures in ancient armour are grouped around. The stained glass windows contain the armorial shields of the families of Allen, Anguish, Godolphin, Osborne, and Peto. Vandrebanc's finely engraved portrait of admiral Allen, and a charming picture of *Deer and Fawns*, by Landseer, hang on each side of the entrance. Over the first landing place of the staircase is a portrait picture of George and Robert Stephenson.

The suite of rooms shewn are all on the ground floor, the ceilings rather low, and the passages dark. The breakfast room contains small family portraits, some modern Flemish pictures, *Hospitality*, by C. Horsley, &c. In the lobby are a *Cattle piece*, by Sidney Cooper, watercolour of Mr. Betts's Anglo-Italian mansion, &c. The library has a carved ceiling, and is fitted round with book cases of Renaissance design, carved in wainscot, filled with bound books. Over the marble chimney piece, with its motto, 'learn to live, learn to die,' is a grand picture by Rembrandt, *Ferdinand and Isabel*.

The dining hall is a nobly proportioned apartment, two stories in height, with a rich carved polychrome ceiling in compartments, and cornices in oak with gilt reliefs, with clusters of fruit and wreaths of flowers. It has a huge pyramidal chimney piece supported by two full length caryatides,—*Summer and Winter*, carved by Thomas. The ceiling is carried on brackets, supported by heads of the Roebuck, Wild Boar, &c. In the stained glass windows are medallion portraits of Newton, Watt, Chaucer, Shakspeare, Wren, and Reynolds, surmounted by allegorical figures of the liberal sciences. On either side the fire-place are *chef d'œuvres* of Clarkson Stanfield, fitted into panels. '*The towing of the Victory into Gibraltar Bay, with the body of Nelson*,' and *the Siege of San*

Sebastian, and above these are frescoes by Maclise, and Horsley, also pannelled. Guido's *Simeon holding the infant Saviour*, and a superb *fruit-piece* by Lance, *introducing a portrait of Rubens*, adorn the ends of the apartment. Minstrels' galleries are overhead. Massive and richly carved chairs, tables, and buffets, line the sides, the last surmounted by majolica vases and tazzas.

The three rooms succeeding, open into the winter garden,—the ladies' Morning room,—the drawing room of the ancient mansion is an admirable specimen of an old English oak pannelled chamber. The wainscoting, cornices, and enrichments over the doors, and the mirror frame, are all elaborately carved with game and fruit devices, by Grinling Gibbons. In the modern stained glass windows, landscapes and views are introduced. The pictures on the walls, chiefly foreign pastels, include two charming female portraits, by Sir Joshua Reynolds, Pamela Lady Edward Fitzgerald, and an unknown fair one. In this room are placed four large cabinets from Stowe, of unusual size and beauty.

The Withdrawing room is fitted up in cream and gold; with carved ceiling. The walls are hung with water colour pictures. Four large mirrors, and elegant carved marble chimney pieces with figures by Thomas, ornament this apartment. On the side tables are large china bowls and Sevres vases.

The Billiard room in pink, has stained glass windows, and engravings by Wille, Raimbach, &c.

In the lobbies are a number of glass cases with stuffed birds, and the case of stuffed animals from Nuremberg, which formed one of the attractions of the Great Exhibition of 1851.

In the upper rooms which are kept private, are some pictures by English masters, *drawing from the model*, by Wright, of Derby, *landscapes* by Wilson, &c. The old Gobelins tapestry and stained glass, formerly in the lower rooms, decorate some of the sleeping chambers.

Visitors are shewn out at the eastern entrance, passing through a spacious domed vestibule, supported by twelve columns, and lit by stained glass representations of English birds. The walls are inlaid with marble panels, the side windows are of rich stained glass with hawking, hunting, and archery scenes, and the floor is paved with black and Devonshire marbles and encaustic tiling.

To the left of the spacious courtyard, in quitting the house, are the stables and carriage yards, grouped round a very elegant clock tower. This east side is the carriage entrance, the approach made through handsome iron gates with fine stone piers, supporting two Red Deer couchant, sculptured by Thomas.

All the architectural details of this noble pile, are extremely rich, graceful, and varied; and the visitor, who like us, quits it with a lingering parting glance, may possibly share our own conclusion,—that the exterior of this princely residence surrounded by unrivalled conservatories, with its double avenues of limes and

elms, its lawns, shrubberies, and evergreen thickets, forming a whole in which nature and art appear to outvie each other, surpasses in interest the interior.

The park is above three hundred acres in extent, and includes a small Deer Park, an ornamental water, decoy, and lake. The decoy is situate on the Fritton Broad, the loveliest sheet of water in the district. The church, handsomely restored by Sir Morton Peto, M.P., is in the precincts of the park. Round the village green, twenty-eight cottages have been built within the last few years, picturesque alike in grouping and detail, and with accommodation much superior to houses of their class. Constructed of timber and brick, rough cast, with gables light, lofty, and many peaked, with steep reeded roofs, and with porches to doors and windows, they are models of rustic elegance.

From the south end of Lowestoft various excursions may be made. Taking the high road to Southwold, or keeping along the coast, the following villages may be visited in succession:—

KIRTLEY.

Part of the new quarter of south Lowestoft stands in the parish of Kirtley. It is a fishing village. The church is a nondescript, built out of the ruins of a large old church, the tower of which remains. The old fabric went to ruin about 1640: for the next century the ministers who were also rectors of Pakefield, did duty morning and afternoon at the latter place, which accommodated both congregations. In 1748, the rectories were divided, and Mr. Hall, the rector of Kirtley, conceived himself excused of all duty from the ruined state of the church. His neighbour, Mr. Tanner the good vicar of Lowestoft, justly scandalised, failed not to use all the mild and persuasive arguments in his power, to prevail on the incumbent of Kirtley to make an allowance to the minister of Pakefield, for officiating in his stead, but to no purpose; so that finding him inflexible in his resolution, he left him with this threat, "Sir, if you will not officiate in Pakefield church, I will build you a church at Kirtley, and in that you shall officiate." Hesel about procuring subscriptions throughout the district, and the present structure was raised. The present font is from a ruined church at Gillingham. By the old parish papers, it seems the rector is entitled to a payment, in lieu of the tithe of the fish caught by the boats of this parish, called Christ's half dole.

PAKEFIELD

stands on a cliff much undermined and washed away by the sea. The stratum is the highest in the county, and contains loam, marl and clay, resting on blue lias. Many fossils of extinct mammalia have been found here. The old Elizabethan manor house is

occupied as a farm homestead. The church has the very singular features of embracing two distinct churches under one roof,—All Saints, and St. Margaret's,—forming a double aisle of similar architecture and dimensions, divided by seven pointed arches on octagonal pillars. It was evidently erected for two distinct congregations, and each had their own altar with raised steps. There is a square tower at the west end, the lower compartment of a richly painted rood screen, and an octagonal font, a silver chalice dated 1337, and brasses 1417, and 1451, the former has the figures of John Bowfe, his wife and 11 children, with a very curious epitaph, defaced. The roof is of thatch. Some fresco paintings were brought to light a few years since. Steps to the respective rood lofts remain in the north and south walls. In the vestry is a model of the tower and spire of Norwich Cathedral, formerly used as a font cover.

The rectory of Pakefield, was in mediæties, from a period antecedent to the Norman Conquest, each half having its distinct patron, who presented to his portion upon every vacancy in succession. This continued until 1645, when one rector was instituted to both mediæties, by the two patrons jointly. In 1743, they were consolidated into one living, its then value of £50 being insufficient to maintain two clergy.

GISLEHAM.

Bloodmore Hill, which adjoins Pakefield parish, was the scene of a sanguinary contest with the Danes. A mound marks the site, and remains of armour, spears, bits, and stirrup irons, have been dug up. In 1768, a skeleton was found in a barrow here, round whose neck hung a gold medal, and an onyx set in gold. The legend round the medal was D.N.T. AVITUS. On the obverse a rude head, helmeted, with cross on shoulder; on the reverse, VICTORIA A.V.G.G.G. exergue CONOB. The church has a nave, chancel, round tower, and large south porch, a very fine north porch was removed a few years since. Roof thatched. Font, octagonal, perpendicular, of more than usual merit. Also the lower portion of a rood screen, once of surpassing richness and elegance, with paintings of the twelve apostles.

KESSINGLAND.

Here a fine church (St. Edmund,) was built by the Nuns of St. Clare, Convent of the Minories, London. At the dissolution it shared the fate of numberless other churches and fell into decay. A noble perpendicular tower one hundred feet high, and some fragments worked into the present church, attest its grandeur. The old font remains, octagonal, richly ornamented, and deeply recessed round the bowl; under each canopy, the figure of a saint. There is a similar range round the stem. Over the centre of the tower west doorway, is a statue of St. Edmund, and at the

spandrels of the portals, angels waving thuribles. In 1668, the roof fell in, the seats were stolen, and the church disused for years. In 1693, it was patched up by the sale of the lead £146, and £200 contributions. In the parish register is a mem. "Edward Carleton, vicar, did promise sev^l times to give £5 towards the re-building, and gave not one penny," a later successor, Tanner of Lowestoft, was a man of different stamp, and presented the church with its plate, besides other gifts. The spacious old church had several chapels.

BENACRE.

The church (St. Michael) was re-built 1769, by Sir Thomas Gooch. Little of its ancient character is left. It has a chancel, nave with south aisle divided by an arcade of 6 pointed arches, on slender octangular pillars. A good perpendicular font. The upper story of the old square tower has been removed.

COVE HYTHE, OR NORTH HALES.

Here in 1495, was born Bishop Bale, the voluminous ecclesiastical writer and sturdy reformer.

The church of St. Andrew forms a noble pile of ruins, celebrated for their picturesque beauty. Their magnitude attest the former importance of this little hamlet. A colony of French protestant exiles settled here, and carried on for a considerable period a flourishing cloth manufactory. The church was held by the Cluniac monks of Wangsford. At the dissolution, Henry VIII invested the Duke of Norfolk with its secular possessions, and in his family they remain. All the parts of this stately pile are in complete decay, excepting the south aisle, which has been fitted up for service. The three grand arches at the east end retain their positions; the tower remains entire, a conspicuous landmark. The former magnificence of this church, even after the neglect and decay of a century and a half, is preserved for us in the record of its desecration, by Dowsing, April 6, 1643. "We brake down two hundred pictures—one pope with divers cardinals—Christ and the Virgin Mary—a picture of God the Father among others which I remember not. There was four steps with a vault underneath. There was many inscriptions to Jesus, in capital letters, on the roof of the church, and cherubims with crosses on their breasts, and a cross in the chancel, all which, with divers pictures in the windows, which we could not reach, neither would they help us to raise the ladders—all which we left a warrant with them to do in fourteen days."

Midway on the coast, between Covehithe and Southwold, stood formerly the town of Easton Bavent: Gardner, the historian of the district, thus records it in the last century. "It is situated on a high cliff, was formerly large and well peopled. It is

reputed ancient, and to have had considerable trade, but is now reduced to two dwelling-houses and ten souls."

SOUTH COVE.

Church of St. Lawrence. Has chancel, nave, south porch, and west tower. North and south door-ways, Norman, the latter with zigzag mouldings; lancet windows in chancel, perpendicular in nave, with some old stained glass, open roof of oak and open benches, with carved poppy heads, piscina and sedilia, north door, carved old oak. In the chest is a parchment register of the period of Henry VIII.

WALBERSWICK

On the coast, a mile below Southwold, a place of great antiquity, with a large fishing trade under the Norman kings, subsequently injured by fire, the blight of this coast. This ruined church, built at the cost of the inhabitants in 1493, is 124 feet in length, 60 wide, with aisles and lady chapel, tower 90 feet high, and wooden spire.

SOUTHWOLD,

An old fashioned watering place about 12 miles south of Lowestoft, and once a town of some importance. On April 25, 1659, a fire destroyed in the space of 4 hours its town hall, market, prison, shops, warehouses, and 238 dwelling houses, three-fourths of the town, involving the ruin of more than 300 families, and the injury has never been fully retrieved.* The prospect of the German Ocean from its cliffs is peculiarly fine, and its marine parade has a variety of delightful walks,—St. Edmund's hill, Gun hill, the Ladies' walk, &c., lined with numerous picturesque residences. The climate is so mild, that here the swallow makes its earliest arrival and latest departure, and the soil, consisting of strata of sand and gravel known as the Suffolk crag, is remarkably dry and healthy. On the Gun hill is a battery of six guns, taken by Prince Charles Edward from Sir John Cope at Preston pans, and re-captured at Culloden, presented to Southwold by the Duke of Cumberland.† Its Bay was the scene, May 28, 1672, of the

* From an entry in Milton's STATE PAPERS, 1654. It would seem the town has been for some years previous to the fire in a deplorable condition. "The town of Southwold at present destitute. The town consisteth of about 2000 souls. . . . The causes of the decay of the town are,—the impairing of the harbor,—the want of fishing,—and the charge of many widows and fatherless, left upon them by several fights with the Hollanders."

† On his return by sea from Scotland, pursued with execrations for the cruelties which followed up the fatal day of "Drumossie Moor," when

"Many a chief of birth and fame,

Was hunted down like savage game;"

stress of weather caused the Duke to land at Southwold. The enthusiastic welcome he received from the town, fell like sweet music upon ears familiarised to far other sounds of greeting. He had felt apprehensive of the nature of the reception which awaited him in England, and his gratified sensation of relief impelled him to present the town with the re-captured cannon. They appear to be of great antiquity.

naval battle of Sole Bay, between the combined British and French fleets, numbering 65 English sail, commanded by the Duke of York, and 35 of the latter led by Count D'Etrées, and the Dutch fleet of 91 men of war under De Ruyter. The allies were surprized; the French lost two ships and their rear-admiral; on the English side one ship was taken, two were burned, and three sunk. The Earl of Sandwich was killed, and 2000 officers and men put hors-de-combat. The Dutch lost three large vessels, but the States-General forbade the publication of their casualties.

Suffolk has been called the land of churches,* and nowhere within its confines was there a finer cluster than the churches of Southwold, Blythburgh, Walberswick, and Covehithe, when in their palmy days of splendour.

The churches of the district are largely constructed of flint, in panels of endless variety and beauty, set in framings or divisions of stone. An important feature of their interiors is the quantity and quality of their wood work. Hardly a church, but what possesses its porch, roof, screen, stalls or seats, of design and execution more or less exquisite. There is comparatively little Early English or decorated work, the style is chiefly late perpendicular.

Southwold church is an admirable specimen of the superb structures raised along this coast, noticeable for their lofty square towers, pannelled flint encrustation, fine perpendicular naves, aisles, and chancels, and the absence of transepts. There is a peculiar nobility and stateliness in this church, which stands in a wide open space, its harmonious and beautiful proportions giving it the effect of a small cathedral. Its exterior is remarkable for its 18 large clerestory windows on either side, its spacious aisles, pierced with large windows of elaborate tracery, surmounted by a bold cornice, enriched with leaves and grotesque heads, crowned with battlements, and terminated at the western ends by lofty hexagonal turrets, the battlements also bearing enriched crosses at each angle; and for its noble south porch and large east window. Over the porch is a large parvise or chamber, formerly used as the town arsenal. Dedicated to St. Edmund the martyr, the favourite saint of Suffolk, and built in 1460, its dimensions are 144 feet by 64 feet, its tower 100 feet in height. Within, though much remains to be done to complete its restoration, the eye is delighted with its lofty carved roof, graceful arches, rich polychromed oak pulpit, its splendid and exquisitely carved rood loft and choir seats, St. Nicholas and Ladye chapels, and its canopied sedilia. In short, this church is a perfect gem of late Gothic art. The lower panels of the rood loft are ornamented with a series of highly finished paintings of the apostles, with gilt diaper backgrounds.

* In Domesday Book whilst only one church is recorded as existing in Cambridgeshire, and none in Lancashire, Cornwall, or Middlesex, 364 are enumerated in Suffolk.

The nave has seven bays. Over the chancel a light *sancte* bell turret and spire. The chapels retain their parclooses. The Ladye chapel is sculptured with angels, apostles, prophets, and evangelists. Over the vestry stands a quaint Jack smite-the-clock, transferred to its present position from the tower. The present beauty of the church is the more surprising from the barbarous mutilation it underwent, at the hands of Dowsing and his fellows,—“Southwold, April 8, 1643. We brake down one hundred and thirty superstitious pictures, St. Andrew and the four crosses on the four corners of the vestry; and gave orders to take down thirteen cherubims, and to take down twenty angels, and to take down the cover of the font.” In the graveyard lie buried Robert, the brother of Crabbe, the poet* and his hapless son. Here also is a genuine worthy, Thomas Gardner, salt officer, the learned and laborious historian of Dunwich. He lies between his two wives and the epitaphs he has had inscribed over them bespeak the quaint nature of the man. On the south stone, to the memory of his first wife and daughter Rachael,

“Virtue crowned during life,
Both the daughter and the wife.”

On the north side to his second wife, Mary,

“Honour ever did attend
Her just dealings to the end.”

The central stone, “In memory of Thomas Gardner, salt officer, who died March 30, 1769, aged 79 years.

Between HONOUR and VIRTUE here doth lie,
The remains of old antiquity.”

The tower contains eight bells. From its summit to the south, the eye looks down on the remains of a ruined city, waste-desolate and void.

Dunwich in the seventh century, is described by Bede as the capital of East Anglia, and the seat of an episcopacy, over which eleven prelates, whose names have come down to us, presided in succession. Even in the time of the Confessor, the inroads of the sea had made rapid progress. At the Conquest the town had 136 burgesses. Its greatest commercial prosperity seems to have been under the Plantagenet sovereigns, whose continual expeditions to their French possessions, profitably employed its shipping and seamen. Its subsequent history is that of a long and fruitless struggle with the devouring enemy at its gates, and the gradual engulfment of its walls, its churches, and priories; no town on our eastern sea margins has suffered to the same extent. We have not space for the story of its decay. Stow narrates that the accounts of its ancient splendour, moved him to visit it; “Where I beheld the remains of the rampart,

* “He was a man in many respects closely resembling the poet, of strong faculties and amiable disposition.”

some tokens of Middlegate, the foundations of down fallen edifices, and tottering fragments of noble structures, remains of the dead exposed, and naked walls divested of the ground about them by the waves of the sea." Its numerous churches, monasteries, hospitals, and convents, have all perished. The ruins of a few exist at the present day. "On Jan. 1, 1286, several churches were thrown down; three more in the 14th century; in the 16th century a parish church, three chapels, and the south and golden gates were swept away; in the reign of Charles I, the Temple buildings fell; in 1677, the market-place; in 1680 all the houses north of the Maison Dieu disappeared; in 1702 St. Peter's church was lost, and in 1754 All Saints' church was dismantled."

Tradition records the ancient existence of a forest called Eastwood, which stretched several miles between the town and the ocean, and there is an old saying, "that the tailors of Dunwich could formerly sit in their shops, and see the shipping in Yarmouth Roads." To the geologist, it would be a work of interest to trace out the causes, which have led to the singular destruction of the coast, at this particular point.

On the beach at Southwold, which is also said to have receded a mile, the visitor will see piled up those terraces of pebbles, which the continual grinding action of the waves, converts into the sand, which lines the beach of Lowestoft and Yarmouth. Amber and jet are dredged up by the fishermen, and cornelians and agates are found upon the beach. Fine specimens of these may be purchased in the town. The pits in the neighbourhood abound in deposits of coralline crag, rich in various corals, shells, and echini, containing in fact several hundred species of shells.

BLYTHBOROUGH.

At Blythborough, a short distance due west of Southwold, is a noble church, unhappily in a condition of neglect, which forms a sad contrast to that at Southwold. It is splendid even in its decay and desolation. As at Lowestoft the tower is of inferior proportions and anterior date. Built in the middle of the fifteenth century, its length is 127 feet by 54. The nave and aisles are highly ornamented. It has a superb row of 18 clerestory windows on each side, once terminated by elegant finials, and a rich open parapet of quatre foils to the south aisle; the pannelled buttresses of the aisles are surmounted by pinnacles, supporting grotesque monsters. On the angles of the porch, are figures of an angel and an eagle, in the place of pinnacles. Within, the delicate workmanship of its screens, the rich stalls and shrine work of its chapels, its very elegant carved lectern and *Arcana Domini*, or poor box, its remarkable and beautiful series of poppy heads, the numerous heraldic shields on the roof of the nave, which retains the old painting throughout, are all embellishments of no ordinary church. The octagonal font is fine; the tower arch very lofty.

Francis Jessop records his sacrilegious visit, April, 1643—4. "There was twenty superstitious pictures; one on the outside of the church, two crosses; one on the porch, another on the steeple, and twenty cherubims to be taken down in the church and chancel; and I brake down three *orate pro animabus*, and gave order to take down above 200 pictures within 8 days." This church had been built and supported by the monks of the adjoining priory of Augustines, and its present condition forms a striking exemplification of the great mischief which ensued from the wholesale plunder of the revenues and endowments of the monasteries. In 1663, the archdeacon's visitation book records, that "here at Bliborough, there hath been no communion for these 12 years past." The present benefice is returned in the clergy list as only £45 annual income. In Stow's annals is the following relation:—"On Sunday, 4 Aug. 1557, between the hours of nine and ten a clock in the forenoon, whilst the minister was reading the second lesson in the parish church of Blithburgh, a town in Suffolk, a strange and terrible tempest of Lightning and Thunder struck through the wall of the same church into the ground, almost a yard deep; drove down all the people on that side of the church, above twenty persons; then renting the wall up to the Rvestry, cleft the door, and returned to the steeple, rent the timber, brake the chains, and fled towards Bungay. The people that were stricken down were found groveling more than half an hour after, whereof a man and boy were found dead; the others were scorched." The parish registers mention, that the spire-part of the steeple was thrown down, and the standing remains greatly rent and torn by the tempest.

BECCLES.

The Waveny is navigable from Yarmouth as far as Bungay, a distance of 40 miles. The East Suffolk Railway has diverted the passenger traffic from the stream which abounds in eels, pike, perch of unusual brilliancy of colour, and roach. Its upper waters are singularly transparent. Steamers occasionally go up to Beccles, and as it also has railways to Lowestoft and Yarmouth, it can easily be brought into a day's excursion.

Beccles, the Beata Ecclesia, stands on a bold promontory, looking down on the wide and fertile valley, and the winding silvery stream of the Waveney. The manor of Beccles was granted by King Edwy to the monastery of Bury. Before the great subsidence of the waters in this district, Norwich and Beccles were important herring marts. The ancient commerce of Beccles was confined to the herring fishery. Myriads of these fish must have frequented the estuaries of the Yare and Waveney. At the Domesday survey, the tale of 30,000 herrings paid to Edward the Confessor, as a fee-farm rent, was raised by the Conqueror to 60,000. Many similar imposts are recorded in Domesday, paid by the several villages and towns along their shores, varying in

quantity according to the wealth of the places. For the convenience of the buyers and sellers of herrings at Beccles, a chapel was erected, in the market place, dedicated to St. Peter. As the waters receded, the fishery declined, and the chapel fell into disuse. It was open as late as 1470. At Beccles, during the Marian persecution, three persons were committed to the flames, in the most summary manner, without the warrant of the Privy Council. In 1586, a fire which broke out in the chimney of one of the smaller houses, was fanned by the wind, and before it was suppressed, destroyed eighty houses, and property to the value of £20,000. The town was greatly devastated by successive fires in the century following.

The church of St Michael, founded about 1370, ranks among the finest in Suffolk, and possesses unusual features in its noble south porch, (circa 1450) lofty, and enriched with niches and tabernacle work, originally richly painted and gilt; and in its massive detached tower of 4 stories, 92 feet by 40, containing 10 bells,—commenced soon after 1500, and after occupying 40 years in building,—left unfinished at the Reformation. The nave and chancel of 8 bays, with light clustered columns, are of equal height, with aisles extending the entire length. Before the Reformation it possessed transept chapels, the arches of which now filled up with glass, are clearly discernible from the other windows, which exhibit a great variety of fine tracery.

The church was restored in 1869, by J. H. Hakewill, at a cost of £3000. On the 6th of April, 1643, Dowsing was very busy here, as he records "Jehovahs between the church and chancel, and the sun over it; and by the altar 'my flesh is meat indeed, and my blood is drink indeed,'—and two crosses which we gave orders to be taken down; one was on the porch, the other on the steeple; also many superstitious pictures, the number about forty; six several crosses; Christ's, Virgin Mary's, St. George's, and three more; thirteen crosses in all. Jesus and Mary in letters, and the twelve apostles."

Looking round this large interior, which but for its lofty open timber roof, is painfully meagre in ornamentation, the thought will forcibly intrude itself, that the memorial tablets which line the walls, each out-vieing its neighbour in fulsome and indiscriminate laudation, are but sorry substitutes for the *Jesu, filii Dei miserere mei* engraven on the brasses of the humble worshippers, who raised and so richly adorned this once noble fabric. Commend us rather to the contemplation of the 40 stained glass pictures, and the effigies of the twelve apostles, as more veracious portraiture and less superstitious and lying legends, than those incised on their modern marble successors; one thing at least, the Beccles people can boast of in their church.—

"But we have mural tablets, every size
That woe could wish, or vanity devise."

An altar tomb, with the effigies of 11 children of John Reve, mayor of Norwich, 1502, has been let into the chancel wall. A splendid rood screen of oak perished in the fire of 1586.

The old bridge was built 1437—52, and had a chapel of St. Mary, like that of Wakefield.

The scenery round Beccles has many charms. The town itself with a population exceeding 4000, is a superior type of the class of small towns so numerous in the Eastern Counties, and appears to have been last century and the early part of this a central gathering place of the genteel society of North Suffolk, for their balls, assemblies, and other polite entertainments. Its Theatre, now converted into a Corn Exchange, and other substantial public buildings and private dwellings, serve to indicate that eclipse which Beccles, like many another once fashionable country town has been forced to undergo from changed customs, or upstart rivals.

NORWICH.

We have left the most important excursion of all,—that to Norwich, to the last. It can be easily and most cheaply visited by the Saturday market trains. Our space will not permit us to describe a tithe of the attractive features of this fine old city, every nook and corner of which is filled with venerable antiquarian remains. Fortunately, its most striking buildings lie near together in a line from west to east, and may be explored in the limits of a single day, if necessary.

On quitting the station, the following may be taken in close succession. To reach the heart of the city, we pass through the *Cattle Market*, on a site called the Castle meadow, one of the largest markets in the kingdom, and filled on Saturdays to overflowing with oxen, sheep, and Norfolk yeomen. Facing us as we enter it is the Shire Hall, erected by Wilkins, 1823, for the county assizes and sessions; the architecture, a very debased Gothic.

In ascending the steps, which lead to the summit of the Castle hill, we cross the bridge which spans the ancient inner *vallum* or ditch, surrounding the *bullium* or hill, on which stands the old *keep*, now converted into a county gaol. The exterior of Norwich Castle has been so modernised, as to render it impossible to trace distinctly its original architecture. As the most important fortress of the district, it was strongly fortified in turn by Saxons, Danes, and Normans. It was first used as a prison, *temp.* Henry III. From its encircling walls, a panorama of wondrous beauty is displayed, embracing the six and thirty church towers and spires of "the City in an Orchard" with its leafy gardens and old houses pleasantly interblended.* One of the finest views of the cathedral, is obtained from the eastern walls.

Next, we descend into the spacious and crowded market place, one of the busiest and most picturesque scenes in England.† At

* Norwich has 36 parishes; 17,012 houses; population, 74,414.

† The south side of the Market Place, is named 'the Gentleman's Walk.'

the extreme left, is the fine perpendicular church of St. Stephen, noticeable for its long line of clerestories. It contains an unusual number of brasses and some fine old stained glass. A little to the right of it,—its huge bulk projecting into the market place, and its eastern end surrounded by a cluster of old Flemish looking gable ends,—is the noble church of St. Peter Mancroft. No lover of church architecture should omit to visit its interior, so grand in its wide and lofty proportions, with clustered columns of matchless height, lightness, and elegance. The nave, choir, and chancel, are 212 feet in length, by 70 in width. Here lies buried that famous old physician and quaint writer, Sir Thomas Browne.* In a curious chamber behind the altar, is shewn his portrait, and mural monuments to himself and his wife are fixed to the north and south pillars of the altar. The effect of the successive flights of steps to the altar, is unusually good. At the west end is a Baptistery of debased perpendicular. The timber roof is of fine open work. The clerestory has seventeen large windows on each side; in the north and south aisles are chapels resembling small transepts. St. Peter Mancroft has a peal of 12 bells, of unrivalled power and tone.

We can cross through the fish market to the north east corner of the market, where stands the ancient Guild Hall; its exterior covered with fine old chequer flint work. The Mayor's Council Chamber retains its Tudor furniture, with carved panel work and stained glass windows. It contains numerous portraits of the old municipality, also a naval trophy in honour of Lord Nelson. There are other curious chambers to be seen on application. Almost opposite the north doorway of the Guild Hall, is the Public Library, up a paved court. It has a Doric portico: on its shelves are upwards of 30,000 volumes.

Passing down the eastern side of the market place, and turning to the left, we pass in succession the Corn Exchange, the Post Office, and the new Free Library. At this last, is the Norwich School of Art, and adjoining it, is the Museum and Literary Institution. On the site of this last stood the ancient Palace and Courtyard of the Dukes of Norfolk. Here, were housed the treasures of art collected by the Earl of Arundel, described by Evelyn as surpassing in grandeur, those of any prince in Europe. Charles II and his court were sumptuously entertained here, in 1671.

Continuing left for a short distance, a turn to our right will bring us to St Andrew's Hall, one of the most remarkable of the public buildings of Norwich. It formed the nave of the church of the Black Friars' Monastery. The chancel is used as a chapel by the adjacent workhouse, in whose buildings its cloisters are also incorporated. Like almost all the churches of the city, its architecture is perpendicular. It has seven lofty arches on each side,

* The house of Sir Thomas Browne stood on the site of the present Savings' Bank, in Haymarket Square, at the south west of the Market Place.

open timber roof and clerestories; those on the north, perpendicular, on the south, decorated. These last belonged to an earlier structure. A fine west window is hidden by the orchestra. The tower which stood between the nave and chancel, fell in 1712, the stair turret remains. The church was commenced by Sir Thomas Erpingham, who died in 1421, and completed by his son. At the dissolution it was rescued by the corporation, on payment of £81 to the royal treasury. Later, it was used by the king's players, for "interludes" on Sundays. Many Guilds, including the famous company of St. George,* held their feasts here. In 1544, was held the first of those sumptuous mayor's feasts, which acquired a reputation second only to those of the London corporation. In this fine old interior, have been welcomed many distinguished personages, and it has been put to many uses. It became a mint in 1696. It was used as an exchange for merchants, later, as a corn exchange and as an assize court. During the present century, it has been the scene of innumerable gatherings, religious, social, and political, but it is best known to the country at large as the scene of the Norwich Musical Triennial Festivals. On its walls, are ranged numerous full length portraits of public celebrities and local notabilities, painted by Gainsborough, Beechey, Opie, Lawrence, Hoppner, Haydon, &c. The most valuable is that of Lord Nelson, by Sir W. Beechey, painted in 1801, after the battle of the Nile, and said to be the last and best portrait of Norfolk's greatest son.

The Cathedral lies some little distance beyond St. Andrew's Hall. On our way, we pass St. Ethelbert's, and the Erpingham gateways, the former erected by the citizens as an atonement for injuries done to the cathedral in an insurrection, 1272. In the chapel over the gateway officiated a priest supported by voluntary offerings. The usual approach to the cathedral is through the Erpingham Gateway, an unique and most richly decorated specimen of fourteenth century art. It was built by Sir Thomas Erpingham, as a penance for his Wicliffite opinions. Passing under it and along the close to the western doorway of the Minster, on our left is the old free Grammar School, built by Bishop Salmon, *temp.* Edward II. Beneath it is a crypt supported by numerous massive pillars, shewn on request. Founded as a chapel, it became later a charnel house. At the dissolution it passed to the city, and in the reign

* This fraternity, so famous for the good cheer of its feasts, its imposing processions, its wealth, and the social importance of its members existed from 1285, to 1731, when its charters and effects were handed over to the city authorities. It came in for a chief share of the denunciation which Bishop Bale lavished on Norwich, A.D., 1549, for the careless destruction of its antiquities, and records. "Oh cytile of England, whose glory standeth more in belly chere, than in the searche of wisdom godlye, . . . the conseruacion of your antiquities wold have much longer endured than all of your belly bankettes and table triumphs, either yet of your newly purchased hawkes, to keep St. George's feast in,"

of Elizabeth, the free Grammar School was transferred to it.*

The most striking features of the Cathedral are its Norman tower, the finest in England, 140 feet in height; its graceful spire, which ranks next after Salisbury, 175 feet high; its Norman nave of remarkable length, 204 feet, height, 70 feet, divided by 14 massive arches, and with splendid sculptured roof of the fifteenth century; its choir of unusual length, 183 feet, with apsidal east end, and superb clerestory, of transition from Norman to Pointed. The triforium along its entire length is unusually lofty and imposing. Of the numerous side chapels at the eastern end, but one or two remain, and these cry aloud for restoration. Beauchamp's chapel, A.D. 1360, south of the choir, is used as the Consistory Court. The curious circular chapel of St. Luke, south of the apse, is used as the parish church of St. Mary in the Marsh. This chapel and the corresponding one on the north, were built by Bishop Losinga, the founder of the Cathedral, 1096, who died 1119, and is buried in the centre of the choir. The Lady Chapel at the extreme east end, 70 feet in length, has unhappily perished. The present length of the Cathedral is 407 feet; its width is not sufficient in proportion, and greatly detracts from its effectiveness. The transepts are also too narrow.

From the cloisters on the south side, one of the largest quadrangles in England, commenced 1287, finished 1430, a beautiful view of the tower and spire is obtained. They form a square of 174 feet; the arches are filled with excellent tracery of the decorated period; the groined stone roofs ornamented with sculptured bosses. The Chapter House has perished.

The Cathedral is not rich in monuments; the two finest are in the choir; Bishop Goldwell's, an altar tomb, and that to Bishop Bathurst, by Chantrey. The great west window has been filled with stained glass, as a memorial to the late Bishop Stanley.†

* Among its distinguished scholars are the names of Archbishops Parker and Tenison, Bishops Cosin and Maltby, Monk, the Greek Professor, Calus, the Physician, Dr. Samuel Clarke, Chief Justice Sir Edward Coke, Lord Nelson, and Rajah Brooke. Among its masters were Parr, Beloe, E. Valpy, and Francis Hodgson.

† Sir T. Browne records that about a hundred brass inscriptions were stolen and taken away from the Cathedral, in the time of the civil wars. The gross outrage to which the fabric was subjected by the rabble at the same period is related by Bishop Hall. After being denounced to Laud for his puritan leanings, it was his hard fate to suffer later, imprisonment, proscription and worldly ruin at the hands of the Long Parliament.

"It is no other than tragical to relate the carriage of that furious sacrilege, whereof our eyes and ears were the sad witnesses, under the authority and presence of Linsey, Tofts the Sheriff, and Greenwood; Lord, what work was here, what clattering of glasses, what beating down of walls, what tearing up of monuments, what pulling down of seats, what wresting out of irons and brass from the windows and graves, what defacing of arms, what demolishing of curious stone-work that had not any representation in the world, but only of the coat of the founder, and skill of the mason, what toting and piping upon the destroyed organ pipes, and what a hideous triumph on the market

The Bishop's Palace stands on the north side of the cathedral, and the Deanery on the south. The Precincts have been grievously encroached upon by the gardens of the chapter, and to walk round the cathedral, a very considerable detour is necessary. The best view is from Mousehold Hill, a short distance eastwards. From this point, the choir with its apse and flying buttresses is best seen, together with a splendid prospect of the city.

From the Cathedral, visitors can return to the station by a short and direct road, without retracing the route we have taken them. The exploration here laid down for them will occupy about half a day. Hours of service at the Cathedral, 10 a.m., 4 p.m.; doors open between the services.

GEOLOGY OF THE DISTRICT.

The county of Norfolk is situate on the western side of the great chalk formation. Its surface has a considerable slope from the north west towards the south east, and consequently the drainage of the greater portion, with a part of Suffolk, is carried off through Yarmouth Haven. Ten principal valleys, occupying 150 square miles, or 100,000 acres, have the outfall of their collected streams at Yarmouth, the entire area of drainage comprising 1,200 square miles in Norfolk, and upwards of 200 in Suffolk, and these limits correspond with the deposit of clay, brick-earth, and diluvial matter, resting upon the chalk in this portion of Norfolk. The valleys are what are denominated, "valleys of elevation," formed by the upheaving of the chalk, the flint layers on each side the valleys being found to decline from the line of fracture. The tertiary beds occupying the chief part of East Norfolk contain mammalian and ligneous remains, the diluvial detritus consisting of blue clay, the wreck of the blue lias. At a period anterior to the deluge, the chalk formation was occupied by the mastodon, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, elephant, and other gigantic mammalia, and their remains are continually being discovered. From the quantity of grinders of the elephant dredged and brought up in the fishermen's nets, on the oyster grounds off Happisburgh, it has

day before all the country, when in a kind of sacrilegious and profane procession all the organ pipes, vestments, both copes and surplices, together with the leaden crosses, which had been newly sawne downe from over the green-yard (cloisters) pulpit, and the service books and singing books that could be had, were carried to the fire in the public market place; a lewd wretch walking before the train, in his cope trailing in the dirt, with a service book in his hand imitating in an impious scorn the tune, and usurping the words of the litany used formerly in the church: neer the public crosse, all these monuments of idolatry must be sacrificed to the fire, not without much ostentation of a zealous joy in discharging ordinance to the cost of some who professed how much they had longed to see that day. Neither was it any newes upon this guild-day to have the cathedral now open on all sides to be filled with muskatiens, wayting for the major's returne, drinking and tobaccooning as freely as if it had turn'd alehouse."—BISHOP HALL'S HARD MEASURE.

been computed that upwards of five hundred of these animals were deposited in that limited space. Many have been also dredged off Yarmouth. In no other district have so great a number of the fossil bones of deer been brought to light.

A large æstuary occupied at an early period—the date of which has elicited an able controversy among the geologists of the district,—the greater portion of these eastern valleys, as is evinced by the large deposits of marine shells found reposing on the chalk of this district,—a deposit strictly local in its character. Another remarkable local feature is the crag stratum,* a narrow tract running in a south easterly direction from the coast, between Cromer and Weybourne, taking Norwich in its western edge, passing downwards through Suffolk to the sea, Bungay, Halesworth, Woodbridge, and Ipswich, forming its western boundary. This crag stratum formed the bed of an antediluvian æstuary. Its marine inhabitants were the last to occupy the waters and ancient shores prior to the catastrophe which overwhelmed this part of the globe, and to the creation from the wreck, of that surface on which man now exists. This crag rests in parts upon the London clay, and a laminated clay without fossils. It occupies the lowest sites, rarely rising more than 40 feet above the level of the sea, its base in general corresponding with the sea level. The chalk pit near Postwick church is a favourite spot with geologists. Here the original bed of this æstuary may be identified in many places, and the fossils of the stratum found in abundance.

Thick beds of the crag shells are met with in several localities, notably at Bramerton, Thorpe, Marsham, Cromer, Weybourne, and Bungay. These beds have been traced for one hundred miles along the beach at low water, embedded in a sandy ferruginous stratum. The force of the diluvial currents which changed the features of this island is powerfully displayed in their action upon the crag. Portions of it were swept away, and the fragments mingled with the chalk and earlier formations may be seen in the cliffs at Cromer and Trimingham, and further on at Runton and Sherringham, piled for nearly 300 feet in thickness, and all resting upon the original crag base. On the Lighthouse hill at Cromer, the chalk may be seen forced up to the surface 200 feet above its natural level.

In contact with the crag, and embedded in a thin bed of ferruginous gravel, is a remarkable vegetable deposit, which may be traced for fifteen miles from Cromer southwards along the coast,

* Crag is a local name for gravel. Close examination has led to the subdivision of this deposit into the red and coralline crag; when found together, the former is always uppermost, and distinguished by the deep red ferruginous colour of its sand and fossils. Its strata are remarkable for the oblique or diagonal position of the subordinate layers. The fossil testacea found in the crag amount to 400 species. Lyell refers the crag formation to the older Pleiocene period. The thickness of the crag is not known, it has been penetrated 50 feet, near Orford, without reaching the bottom.

appearing just above high water mark, highly contorted and composed of peat, fir, teeth, tusks, and horns of elephants and deer, trunks and branches of trees, nodules, &c., forming part of that submarine forest traced by geologists in Norfolk, across the Wash, along the fens of Cambridge and Lincoln, to the Humber. A layer of blue clay reposes on the bed of ferruginous gravel which extends along the north east coast of Norfolk. The line of coast running from Foulness lighthouse westwards, to Cromer, Runton, and beyond, presents the most remarkable curvatures, inversions, and contortions of the layers of diluvial strata; consisting of veins of chalk, blue lias, gravel, and sand, cropping through the mud cliff of which this part of the coast is composed. These mud cliffs are another singular feature of this locality. They extend from Happisburgh to Sherringham, a distance of 25 miles, and are composed of consolidated mud and blue clay, varying in thickness from 20 to 250 feet. At Foulness, the mud formation attains its greatest elevation, about 270 feet, with above it, horizontal beds of gravel and sand, 50 feet more. It is here and there divided by vertical gaps filled with chalk, marl, or sand. Beyond a few belemnites or gryphæa, it contains few organic remains. It is full of springs, and in consequence avalanches of mud are continually in operation. The shore west of Cromer exhibits a singular accumulation of travelled fragments of primitive rocks, granite, basalt, trap, sandstones, chert, limestone, &c., from the oolite and almost every formation above the coal measures. They extend for two miles, opposite the Beeston hills. On the beach between Weybourne and Sherringham, is a remarkable accumulation of flint boulders arranged in terraces, rising from the beach to a height of 20 feet, and of a nearly uniform size, from 3 to 4 inches diameter. They are principally chalk, flint, and granite boulders, rounded by the continual wearing action of the waves.

Running south, between Happisburgh and Winterton, are a line of sandbanks, called the Marram hills, presenting a natural barrier to the encroachments of the sea. These are bound together by the long creeping roots and fibres of the *arundo arenaria*, the marram plant, from which they derive their name. The little harbours on the northern shores of Norfolk, are protected by a series of ridges of sand, provincially termed "Meals,"* held together by the same singularly useful plant. Care is taken to maintain these barriers, the sea in past years having made great incursions at this point,—nothing now remains to tell of the village of Eccles beyond its ruined church upon the beach, a desolate object amid the dreary sandy waste.

From Happisburgh to Gorleston, the shore is low and sandy. The ground on which Yarmouth stands is alluvial. It has been

* Anglo Saxon, mæl; German, mahl, a boundary; Dutch, moelje, a pier or mole head.

formed, I—by an accumulation of heavy materials brought by the action of the sea, II—by the deposit of oozy sediment, carried down by the numerous streams which discharge their waters through its haven, and III—by the operation of the winds and vegetation upon the sands.

The action of the tidal current of the German Ocean which sets from the north west along these shores has for centuries reduced and rounded off the projecting points, carrying southwards the debris and detritus, and forming with them shoals in the sea, or elevating the low tracts upon its borders. The land springs have co-operated in the destroying process, and the effects are visible in the numerous shoals which line this most dangerous coast. The tidal currents possess a velocity sufficient to create and preserve a deep channel parallel with the shore, locally called the Roads, and described by Sir W. Cubitt, the engineer, as a sea river. They deposit both on the sea and land-sides of this passage the alluvial matter with which their waters are charged, forming shoals and sandbanks which undergo continual change from the variations of wind* and tide, and require constant buoying.

The removal of one part of the coast, has tended to consolidate another. The several outlets of the estuary known to exist in early history, have gradually silted up, and to maintain the Yarmouth haven enormous outlay and exertions have been required during successive centuries. The silt of the valley of east Norfolk is chiefly marine; the river beds are filled to the depth of several feet with ooze, beds of river shells, and also marine, accumulate. Formations of marshy peat are gradually narrowing some of the broads, the growth and decay of aquatic plants forming un-embanked margins, locally called Ronds, contract the rivers. As the large volume of water formerly rolled by the ocean currents up these valleys through the various channels was excluded by their silting up, the quantity of water admitted became trifling, and the many thousand acres of rich land which stretch to the west of Yarmouth, became dry, and good pasturage. The entire level of marshes were embanked and became firm land; the rivers being restricted to their present deep channels. These marshes are even now from one to two feet below the surface of the rivers passing through them, and the water is artificially kept out by embankments and draining mills. At the present time, the Yare, Waveney, and Bure, bear some resemblance to canals; the tidal waters they receive are remarkable for their purity, owing probably to the narrowness of the inlet, and Mr. Telford, the

* "The northern wind was the clanging trumpeter, who with the terrible blast of his throat in one yellow heap, or plump-clustered or congested them together, even as the western gales in Holland right over against them have wrought unruly havoc, and thrashed and swept the sands so before them, that they have choked or clammed up the middle walk or door of the Rhine, and made it as stable a clod-mould or turf-ground as any hedger can drive stake into."—NASH'S LENTEN STUFF, 1509.

engineer, reported in 1822, that it was owing to this purity, the Breydon Lake had so long retained its present dimensions.

The third process in the consolidation of the Yarmouth subsoil, by the operation of vegetation, and the winds upon the blown sands is very interesting. The insignificant-looking little plant, the *arundo arenaria*, the Marram, exercises a most important function in this work; first, collecting and retaining in a net work of fibres, stems, and branches, the loose and shifting sands,—it binds them in a compacted mass. Sometimes a rapid accumulation overwhelms the sturdy little plant; soon it rises with fresh vigour to the surface, appearing not as one, but many plants; layers of fresh sand succeed, the *arundo* spreads its shoots still further and higher, sending forth creepers in every direction in search of newly collected sand. Hillocks grow into ridges, and these again into cliffs, held together by its tenacious and accumulative grasp. Mr. Richard Taylor describes a personal observation of the early stages of a single plant which he found upon a small newly formed hillock of sand. "It had struck out lateral shoots so vigorously, as to induce me to take more accurate note. On measuring one of its stolones, I found it to be twelve yards long; and several others radiating from the original stem were not less than ten yards wide. When thus arranged, their extremities formed a circle, whose diameter was upwards of twenty yards. The joints of the shoots were from six to nine inches asunder. From each, or most of these a root was directed downwards in the sand, and one or two young shoots upwards. Calculating them by the number of stolones, it appears that this plant during a single year, had multiplied itself five hundred fold, or had produced what was equivalent, the rudiments of so many distinct plants, independent of the further power of production by seed."

Few persons have any conception of the enormous bulk of sand, acted upon by the winds on this coast. We quote the estimate made by Mr. Stevenson, an eminent civil engineer, from a number of observations and comparisons on the dimensions of the sandbanks of the German Ocean. The result of this computation is, that their average height is about 78 feet, and the aggregate cubical contents of their debris, is equal to about 14 feet in depth of the whole North Sea, or to 28 feet in elevation, over the entire area of Great Britain.

In a lively paper in Household Words upon "What sand is?" its component parts are thus described,—

"Look at a portion of this Norfolk sea-sand with a strong magnifier: it is very beautiful, as well as very curious. The fragments are not all of the same size, nor shape, nor colour. Some are perfect little grey flint pebbles, like their less advanced, though larger brethren on the beach; others glitter like fragments of flint glass: and they are mostly rounded, as if by the action of water. Here are some specimens of cornelian, there of quartz, or siliceous in its purest form. The microscopic creatures which inhabit the sands, have an interminable range of transparent grottoes and crystal palaces in which to divert their leisure.

The manner in which the insatiable maw of the devouring sea is incessantly supplied with provender by the falling cliffs of East Anglia—resembles, to my mind, nothing so much as those convenient racks in a stable, in which, as fast as a horse eats his hay, more is dropped down upon his nose, or those corn-hoppers, by which pet poultry are supplied with an inexhaustible feast of grain, never too much at a time, but always enough to go to work upon. Every tide eats its meal from the cliff; and when it happens that no new course of earthly dishes is tasted, they are only reserved for a future treat; the glutton's appetite is appeased for the time with the remains of yesterday's, or last week's banquet. And meanwhile, the function of oceanic digestion is for ever going on, unwearied and uncloyed.

But the substances which are easiest removed are not those which travel furthest at one journey. Sand, for instance, is immediately swept away; while the finer atoms of clay and chalk, harder to melt from their parent block, remain longer on hand, and are kept more tantalizingly in suspense, before they are deposited; while the great lumps of rock drop down in company together, in the first instance, rather by having their soft bedding stolen from under them, than from any great amount of transportation which they suffer. The silt and mud and fine particles of clay, are carried up the estuaries and left there by the waters during their temporary state of stagnation at the turn of the tide, till they eventually rise to the surface. The sands are not borne so far inland, but form shoals on the coast, and bars at the mouths of harbours. We have at certain points, such as Weybourn, Sheringham, and Southwold, those terraces of pebbles that are raised upon the beach as regularly as if they had been piled there by the hands of men. But their state is not final: at first they were rough and irregular; flints from the chalk, granite boulders from the rock; now they are smooth and rounded. For though the sea behaves to them in various style, sometimes only playing with them in gentle mood, scarcely making them send forth a pleasant rattle, and sometimes threshing them with the flail of his angry billows, causing them to spring, and clash, and shiver into pieces: he never leaves them quite in repose. Constant worry and want of rest are sure to tell in time; he grinds and frets their very hearts out; and the filings, the saw-dust, the raspings of his lapidary work, are SAND; which thenceforth, as we have seen, has its own proper course and destiny to follow.

Sand, therefore, is rock and other hard substances reduced into powder of various degrees of coarseness. And there was, therefore, no sand in chaos.

The main agent which now causes any change in the level in the Denes is the wind, which not only deposits the drifting sand around every tuft of grass, but also opens a wider gap at any spot left bare of vegetation. I believe that were the Corporation of Great Yarmouth to shut up the Denes for a few years, instead of allowing them to be fed close, their level would rise rapidly from the accumulating deposit amongst the uncropped herbage. On the North Denes every tuft of furze is the foundation of a hillock; just as the African sand-winds raise a small mound over the carcase of every camel left exposed on the surface of the desert.

We must remember that the new-made *TERRA-FIRMA*, on which the infant Yarmouth was first planted, was not a mud-bank, but a sand-bank. Wide is the difference in point of health and comfort. Whether in the African desert, or in those northern latitudes, on such a subsoil the air above and the sand below are both perfectly dry, pure, and wholesome; no deadly dews and damps to scare the traveller, or torment the resident with the dreaming fancy or the waking truth of racked bones and fevered blood. Vigour and longevity were thus the inheritance of Yarmouth. And the county newspapers still constantly furnish us with instances of good folks, who cannot be induced to quit this vale of tears, till they approach or arrive at their hundredth year."

The cliffs from Gorleston to Lowestoft are alternate layers of sand, clay, and gravel, and are being visibly undermined.

For a more lengthened account of the geology of the district, we refer our readers to our Appendix, in which a copious analysis is

given of the Robberds and Taylor controversy, which excited so much interest at the period it occurred. In the course of the discussion all the peculiar physical phenomena of the locality were carefully noted down and adduced by these two able writers in support of their respective theories; and nothing on this subject at all comparable in interest or value has appeared subsequently.

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE DISTRICT.

From the mouth of the Yare, a range of low hills of blown sand bound together by the creeping roots of the marrams and other grasses, extend northwards beyond Caister, Ormesby, and Winterton. The north and south Denes form a portion of this range. West of the town is the great alluvial flat, once the bed of a vast æstuary which extended many miles inland; its subsoil consists of alternate layers of moor and silt, accumulated whilst the sea had free ingress. The most important remains of this æstuary are the various broads, or small lakes, nearly sixty in number, with areas of from 1 to 1200 acres,—the largest being that which forms the backwater to Yarmouth Harbour, the Breydon Water, produced by the junction of the rivers Yare, Waveney, and Bure. The remainder of the æstuary is now more or less laid dry, and constitutes a continuous tract of marshes, stretching for miles along the western side of the town, their character modified by the fresh or salt water which flows by them, and occasionally inundates them. With the exception of the small thickets surrounding some of the broads, and the carrs or plantations of alders, willows,* and birch, scattered over the swampy parts of the marshes, no woods exist on the low grounds. The drainage and embanking carried on for years past, has converted by far the larger portion of the area into the finest and most fertile fields.

The effect produced by the above conditions on the various classes of the vegetable and animal kingdoms, can be but briefly described in our narrow limits. BOTANICALLY, inland, there is naturally a great preponderance of marsh plants, especially sedges and rushes of class *Cyperaceæ*. From the absence of woods, many species, common elsewhere, are wanting here, *anemone*, *oxalis*, *chrysosplenium*. The want of chalk and limestone excludes the *orchideæ*, and many species to which a high elevation is congenial. The variety which does exist depends on the contrast between the

* The Eastern Counties Railway Company have planted the sides of their lines for many miles with willows and osiers, which produce them a considerable annual return. One basket maker at Norwich pays them yearly from £600 to £700. Our visitor has probably noticed the agreeable smell they diffuse in summer, and in the landscape their tremulous gleaming foliage forms a bright and beautiful feature. The willow grows exceedingly fast in the fen country, and there is a bye-word, that the profit of willows will buy the owner a horse before that of other trees will pay for his saddle.

sandy, heathy, marshy, and cultivated soils, of which the surface of the district is composed. In the sands, vegetation is but coarse and scanty, few plants can flourish owing to the want of water, which filters through before the roots have time to absorb it. They consist chiefly of marrams and grasses, whose long roots penetrate deep enough to reach whatever moisture exists. Were it not, however, for these simple uninteresting looking plants, the country along the coast must long since have been inundated, or buried, their long shoots or stolones extending many feet in length, at a few inches below the surface, and crossing and matting in every direction, bind down the sands blown up from the beach, whilst their short strong foliage prevents it being dispersed over the neighbouring lands. On the Denes, and near the sea, are found the *arundo arenaria*, or red sea grass, springing in scattered tufts above the sand, the *arenaria peploides*, or sea chickweed, growing upon the beach, near the turf of the common; the *bunias kakile*, or sea rocket, its flowers of purple hue shooting above the shingle; the *convolvulus soldanella*, or sea bird weed,* the *eryngium maritimum*, or sea holly, scattered all over the beach, and the *ononis repens*, or creeping rest harrow, &c. A very slight change in the component parts of the soil, permits a total alteration of its productions. The most fertile part of the south Denes does not contain more than five per cent of vegetable matter, the remainder being fine sand and small stones,—yet here are produced eight different species of trefoil, and many grasses and other plants different from those of the beach; among them is the very local plant, the *poa bulbosa*, whose leaves constitute the greater part of the herbage.

The sea appears to have but little influence on vegetation. Corn grows on the edge of the cliffs, and within the spray of heavy gales. The heaths, raised but a few feet above the level of marshes and deep rotten bogs, differ little from similar tracts in other localities. The marsh land divides into two parts, the salt and fresh water, the former including the Breydon water, and the river sides as far as the tide extends,—the latter, the greater part of the Broad. In the former will be found the greatest number of novelties to an inland visitor. In the ditches and ponds, left after inundations, are many species of the *confervaceae*, the minute species supplying ample occupation for the microscope.

“Here a grave Flora scarcely deigns to bloom
Nor wears a rosy blush, nor sheds perfume:
The few dull flowers that o’er the place are spread,
Partake the nature of their fenny bed;
Here on its wiry stem, in rigid bloom,

* This beautiful plant grows in the loosest sand, has small pale yellow-green leaves, and a bright pink flower of noble size, larger than the common major convolvulus, and marked with five crimson stripes. The flower is raised but a few inches above the sand. About the middle of July, the Denes are brightened up with its luxuriant bloom, which flourishes best where the sand is least matted by the creeping grasses.

Grows the salt lavender that lacks perfume :
 Here the dwarf sailows creep, the seepfoil harsh,
 And the soft slimy mullows of the marsh,
 Low on the ear the distant billows sound
 And just in view appears their stony bound ;
 No hedge nor tree conceals the glowing sun,
 Birds, save a watery tribe, the district shun,
 Nor chirp among the weeds where bitter waters run."—CRABBE,

The marine *algæ* may be regarded as occasional visitants only to the Yarmouth beach, none but the most common species growing in the immediate neighbourhood. A number from the northern shores are cast up during the equinoctial gales. The prevalence of easterly and north easterly winds has considerable influence in increasing them, as also the form of the beach at a given season will have more or less influence on the quantity left upon it,—a steep shelving surface not allowing those washed up to remain.

In quitting the botany of this district, we may remark that few neighbourhoods have been more completely investigated during the past century by competent explorers. The names of Dr. Sims, Dr. Aikin, Mr. Lilly Wigg, and Mr. Dawson Turner, may be instanced among the eminent naturalists of the locality. The latter gentleman gave a great impetus to scientific research in the neighbourhood. Smith, Hooker, Borrer, Dillwyn, Mertens, Sowerby, and a host of foreign and native naturalists, have in turn, by his means, and with him, made this the scene of their accurate observations.* Last, but not least, may be named Mr. James Paget the present eminent surgeon of St. Bartholomew's, and his brother, the late Mr. C. J. Paget. These gentlemen issued during their residence in Yarmouth, in 1834, a sketch of its natural history, with catalogues of the various species. This valuable little book which incorporates with their own researches many of the observations of the last generation of local naturalists, is now very rare. Our copy is interleaved with M.S. additions and notes by Mr. Dawson Turner, and we have drawn upon its pages for a part of the materials of this chapter.

* The most distinguished botanist in Europe of the present century—Sir James Edward Smith, resided at Norwich for more than thirty years. Sir William Jackson Hooker, Director of the Royal Gardens at Kew, one of the most eminent cultivators of systematic botany of our day, was born at Norwich, in 1785. He married one of the daughters of Mr. Dawson Turner. Dr. Lindley, the most popular living botanical writer, was born at Catton, near Norwich, in 1799. Amongst minor botanical celebrities of Norfolk, may be instanced Hugh Rose, the Bryants, Pitchford, Wilson, Fox, Wighan, &c. Among its naturalists, the earliest name of celebrity is that of Sir Thomas Browne. In entomology occur the names of John Curtis, of Norwich, whose *British Entomology* in 16 volumes, the illustrations drawn and engraved by himself, is admirable alike for its scientific and artistic elegance ; and of the Rev. W. Kirby, Rector of Barham, Suffolk, the joint author with Spence, of one of the most delightful works on the subject, in any language. Thomas Tusser, born 1515, author of the *Five Hundred points of Good Husbandry*, married a Norfolk lady, and lost his money by farming in the county. The study of botany and entomology formed the favourite out-door pursuits of the poet Crabbe.

Quitting the vegetable for the animal kingdom, we will take it in the usual classification, giving only the rarities and local species.

MAMMALIA. The *Yarmouth water dog*, of remarkable hardihood in the water, and of great sagacity in the pursuit of wounded birds,—of the *Seal*, Sir Thomas Browne writes in the 17th century, “No rarity upon the coast of Norfolk. At low water I have known them taken asleep under the cliffs. Divers have been brought to me,”—*Otter*, still taken at intervals, formerly common,*—*Badger*, at the beginning of this century common at Bradwell and Browston,—*Porpoise*, very common,—*Whales*, occasionally. Some years ago, the fishermen when dredging for oysters in Yarmouth Roads, brought up a number of teeth and remains of the Mastodon. The teeth were perfect, a tusk broken at the lower end measured 6 feet, exclusive of the line of curvature.

BIRDS. **RAPTORES**, once very numerous from the abundance of prey in the district,—*Orange legged hobby*, *Sea eagle*, *Osprey*, *Buzzard*, *Marsh harrier*, &c. Formerly every pool had its pair of this last bird; they consumed the day in beating round and round the reeds which skirted the water. *Falcons*, bred a few years back in Corton steeple, and trained to the chase. In earlier days Norfolk was a paradise for the falconer, its wide heaths and marshes furnishing interminable sport. **INSESOES.** The *Goat-sucker*, *Wood-chat*. *Ring-ouzel*, *Water-ouzel*, *Hoopoe*, &c. **GRALLATOES.** *Great Bustard*, once plentiful, now extinct,—*Heron*, common,—*Cranes*, formerly to be seen in hard winters,—*Crested purple heron*, occasionally,—*Bittern*, *Sterk*, *Ibis*, *Godwit*, *Jacksnipe*, *Curlew*, *Lobefoot*, *Long legged plover*, &c. **NATATOES.** *Red breasted goose*, *Velvet scoter*, *King eider*, *Golden eye*, *Grebe*, *Little auk*, *Goosander*, *Smew*, *Crested cormorant*,† and many other rare birds of this class.

For the study of the Natural History of East Anglia, Yarmouth is admitted to be the best situation, and in the class of water birds the number of species added to the British list from this neighbourhood, exceeds that which any other place in the kingdom can claim, whilst the frequent occurrence of the rarer species and the great abundance of the commoner, present opportunities met with nowhere else. In former times the Norfolk fens must have

* “The rivers, great broads and carrs, afford great store of otters with us; a great destroyer of fish, as feeding from the vent downwards.”—SIR T. BROWNE.

† “Building at Reedham upon trees, from whence king Charles I was wont to be supplied. Peewits in such plenty about Horsey, that they sometimes bring them in carts to Norwich, and sell them at small rates, and the country people make use of their eggs in puddings. The great number of rivers, rivulets, and plasches of water, make herons and heneries to abound in these parts; young hems being esteemed a festival dish, and much desired by some palates.”—SIR T. BROWNE.

swarmed with wild fowl, and this, coupled with the plenty of fish, attracted the settlement of numerous monastic bodies. The flat surface of the county, and consequent sluggish course of its rivers, are among the causes which gave rise to the Broad^s which are such a marked feature of its Eastern Coast. The term is a local one, and designates those parts of a river where the stream expands to a great width on either side. Broad^s are distinguished from lakes which are receptacles of water from one or more streams, with their outlets usually larger than the inlet; and from lagoons or pools lying near rivers, and formed by their overflowings. All of these forms are found in the district, with the term Broad indiscriminately applied to them. A triangle, having for its angles Norwich, Lowestoft, and Happisburgh, will embrace the greater part of them. They are of all dimensions, from the pool or "pulk" overgrown with weeds, to the wide expanded lake. The chief are Hickling Broad, Horsey Mere, Heigham Sound, Lake Lothing, and the Broad^s of Barton, Rollesby, Ormsby, Fritton, South Walsham, &c.

Pre-eminent over all is the Breydon Water, the emporium of rare water-fowl, which has furnished at various times as many objects of interest to the naturalist as any locality in Britain. The number of wild-fowl taken in the decoys* on the various Broad^s, or shot on Breydon and elsewhere, is in some seasons prodigious. No place could be more suitable for their habits than Breydon, with its broad sheet of water, extending several miles, with shallow borders, or flats as they are called, and surrounded almost as far as the eye can reach by marshes. Every ebbing-tide leaves its banks bare, and exposes abundance of the small crustacea, and other food congenial to the duck tribe. In the winter it is rarely so frozen as not to furnish a sufficient provision of small fish, crabs, and insects, and at such seasons the greatest number of fowl are procured. Whilst benumbed with cold, they huddle together for mutual warmth,—the sportsman, approaching in his flat-bottomed boat, with a single discharge of his swivel gun, may effect extraordinary slaughter. The reedy borders of the Broad^s afford shelter for breeding, and a profitable trade was carried on for many years in collecting plover's eggs. Many rare visitants are shot on the beach, exhausted with their long flight, especially during the herring season. The *woodcock*, on its first arrival, often rests for a day on the marram banks of the coast; and the kitchen gardens on the outskirts of Yarmouth, are some-

* A decoy is a sequestered pool with curving ditches, the water, 16 18 in. deep, being covered with a net; the ditches or pipes, 17-18 ft. broad at their junction with the main pool, are overlaid with hoops gradually diminishing in size; the purse net, into which the birds are driven, is about the diameter of a bow-net for pike. Reed fences, 5-ft. 6-in high, shelter the decoy, and, with its pipes suited to different winds, it resembles a gigantic spider with outstretched legs. Wild-duck and teal form the principal harvest. Dogs and decoy ducks are the instruments of destruction.

times for a few hours full of these birds. The Rev. Richard Lubbock in his "*Observations on the Fauna of Norfolk, specially the district of the Broads*," 1848, a charming little book, full of the shrewd observation of the sportsman and naturalist, has graphically sketched the amphibious daily life of a denizen of the Broads.

"When I first visited the broads, I found here and there an occupant, squatted down, as the Americans would call it, on the verge of a pool, who relied almost entirely on shooting and fishing for the support of himself and family, and lived in a truly primitive manner. I particularly remember one hero of this description. "Our broad," as he always called the extensive pool by which his cottage stood, was his microcosm—his world; the islands in it were his gardens of the Hesperides,—its opposite extremity his *ULTIMA THULE*. Wherever his thoughts wandered, they could not get beyond the circle of his beloved lake; indeed, I never knew them aberrant but once, when he informed me, with a doubting air, that he had sent his wife and his two eldest children to a fair at a country village two miles off, that their ideas might expand by travel: as he sagely observed, they had never been away from "our broad." I went into his house at the dinner hour, and found the whole party going to fall to most thankfully upon a roasted Herring Gull, killed of course on "our broad." His life presented no vicissitudes but an alternation of marsh employment. In winter, after his day's reed-cutting, he might be regularly found posted at nightfall, waiting for the flight of fowl, or paddling after them on the open water. With the first warm days of February, he launched his fleet of trimmers, pike finding a ready sale at his own door to those who bought them to sell again in the Norwich market. As soon as the pike had spawned, and were out of season, the eels began to occupy his attention, and lapwings' eggs to be diligently sought for. In the end of April, the island in his watery domain was frequently visited for the sake of shooting the ruffs which resorted thither, on their first arrival. As the days grew longer and hotter, he might be found searching, in some smaller pools near his house, for the shoals of tench as they commenced spawning. Yet a little longer, and he began marsh mowing,—his gun always laid ready upon his coat, in case flappers should be met with. By the middle of August, teal came to a wet corner near his cottage, snipes began to arrive, and he was often called upon to exercise his vocal powers on the curlews that passed to and fro. By the end of September, good snipe shooting was generally to be met with in his neighbourhood; and his accurate knowledge of the marshes, his unassuming good humour, and zeal in providing sport for those who employed him, made him very much sought after as a sporting guide, by snipe shots and fishermen; and his knowledge of the habits of different birds enabled him to give useful information to those who collected them."

He has also described a visit to the colony of *gulls*, which are allowed to breed on a swampy island, at Scoulton mere, without being unfairly molested. A portion of their eggs are taken—in average seasons, 30,000 eggs, sometimes as many as 44,000. The "Rock Birds" the *auk*, *guillemott*, &c., appear occasionally. Generally after stormy weather, walking on the beach after a tempestuous night, some water-dog may be seen among the breakers endeavouring to capture one of these birds.

The RIVER FISH include, *smelts*, *sea trouts*, at the harbour mouth; *lampreys*, *eel pouts*, and swarms of the coarser fish. Here the London disciple of Izaak Walton, may fancy himself in Elysium. *Bream*, *roach*, *rud*, and such like, are not reckoned by the pound or by the brace, but by the stone and bushel. Five to ten stone

are often taken by two or three anglers, with now and then a gigantic perch. The large perch associate together, one sweep of a long net at the causeway bridge of Rollesby Broad produced thirty brace of perch, not one of them small. *Pike* is a staple object of pursuit to the local fishermen, especially on the Broads. Mr. Lubbock instances ninety large pike captured in one day by two anglers on Ranworth Broad,* and on Sutton Broad, a very small and shallow pool, twenty-six pike, four of them from 33 to 36 inches, were taken with trimmers. The largest fish he adduces, was one taken at South Walsham Broad, weighing 36lbs. and four weighing 100lbs., have been netted in one day on the same Broad. The *perch* taken in the Breydon water are highly esteemed. Sir T. Browne, describes them as "a dish very dainty, and I think scarce to be bettered in England." In the autumn the very finest are taken by angling with a shrimp, the favourite bait in the lower parts of the Yare and Waveney, and weigh from 4 to 5 lbs. The perch of the Waveney are unrivalled for the brilliancy of their colours. The *ruffe*, the *tench*, caught by hand in shallow waters,† *dace*, *chub*, *gudgeon*,‡ *carp*, *sharp and broad nosed eels* are all plentiful, so much so that an accession of fishes of prey is considered desirable in the Norfolk waters, many of which are literally overstocked with coarse fish. The salt water fish are described in our notice of the fisheries.

In the class *mollusca*, or shells, the chief novelties will be met with in the salt marsh ditches, in many of which the weeds are covered with a variety of shells.

The class of *insects* is unusually rich, the catalogues of species of Butterflies and large Moths being full, and including the rarest and most interesting. Vast numbers of insects are driven by continuous westerly winds to perish in the sea, many of which are to be found upon the beach near high watermark. By this means myriads of destructive insects are providentially destroyed, such as the aphides, the wire-worm, beetles, &c. In autumn a line some inches broad may be sometimes seen at high watermark, of small black flies (genus *bibio*) which a few days before were infesting every plant and blade of grass in the fields and hedges. In the sands, yellow ants and spiders, and numerous other

* In the Beauties of England and Wales, there is a notice of 120 bushels of perch, having been caught in the same Broad by two nets in one day.

† Tench catching is practised in hot summer months, when the fish lie basking near the surface, among beds of weeds. The fisherman marking his prey, cautiously approaches in his light boat, and haring his arm, adroitly insinuates his hand under it, behind the gills, and lifts it gently but rapidly over the boat side. If touched on the head or body the stupid fish remains quiet, but darts away if its tail is handled.

‡ Dace, chub, and gudgeon, abound chiefly in the higher and less stagnant parts of the rivers. Carp are not common in the Broads, but where they occur, grow to the largest size.

predatory insects, may be observed busily engaged in ensnaring and preying on the gnats and smaller flies. Higher up the beach in the tangled roots of grasses and broken edges of sandhills, the entomologist may bring to light a variety of rare species.* Many of the rarer moths have been obtained at Lowestoft upper lighthouse, the brightness of its light visible for many miles being peculiarly attractive to insects inhabiting the woods and heaths adjoining it. "In dark warm nights hundreds of moths may be seen fluttering round the windows, to such an extent as sometimes even to obscure the brilliancy of the light; they may be easily taken, and at all seasons."

Mr. Paget recommends for especial study to entomologists, the insects which occur in the salt marshes, how far they are indigenous and confined to this description of soil, and how far the mixture of saline materials in their food is prejudicial or destructive to other species. The best mode of collecting them, is by turning over the weeds washed higher up than usual by flood-tides and left on the banks of the marshes, and by sweeping the short herbage with a strong bag net. In early spring, large pools of stagnant water remaining from the inundations of the previous winter, are filled with aquatic plants, and both in these and the ditches, many peculiar insects may be taken.†

The sea beach of Yarmouth has not the rich marine zoology which gives such interest to the rock pools and craggy shores of some of our watering places. Star fish, medusæ, the sea mouse, and dog fish, are left upon the sands by the tides.

We omitted to state in the geological notes that moss agates and pebbles are to be picked up: cornelians and amber are occasionally found. Jet washed from Whitby finds its way to Cromer, and thence southwards. Southwold and Aldborough are famous for their pebbles and yellow agates. Some very fine sections of the *drift* formation have been opened up in the brick fields at Somerleyton. It was at Hoxne in Suffolk, that *flint implements* were first discovered, in 1797.

We think our readers will agree with us that the very brief notes above, amply show how full to overflowing in abundance,

* "*Fornices arenariæ marince*.—I observe great numbers by the sea shore, and at Yarmouth, an open sandy coast, in a sunny day many large and winged ones may be observed upon, and rising out of the wet sands when the tide falls away."—SIR T. BROWNE.

† Swarms of flies appear to have been a plague of the district. Sir T. Browne writes, "I send you a few flies, which some unhealthful years come about the first part of September. I have observed them so numerous upon plashes in the marshes and marsh ditches, that, in a small compass it were no hard matter to gather a peck of them." See also his son's journal, when crossing the Wash from Lynn to Boston, "the way quite over is very good, and not at all troubled with flies, with which all those fenne countreys are extreemly pestered."

variety, and interest, is the Natural History of Yarmouth.*

ARCHÆOLOGY OF THE DISTRICT.

Few counties are richer in antiquarian remains than Norfolk and Suffolk; or possess a more abundant literature written for their elucidation. The narrow limits of this work will admit of but short and hasty notices of those more remarkable archæological features in the immediate vicinity of Yarmouth and Lowestoft, and which are readily accessible to visitors.

When the Romans invaded Britain, B.C. 55, they found this district occupied by a native tribe, the Iceni, to whom they at first allied themselves, and, later, subjugated. It was subsequently overrun by a tribe of Saxons, circa, A.D. 537, who obtained the name of Angles. Their kingdom, East Anglia former part of the Heptarchy. In 792 it was annexed to Mercia, and merged 824, under the supreme rule of king Egbert. A.D. 869, occurred the invasion of the Danes,—when Edmund the Saxon king suffered a cruel martyrdom, and became the patron saint of the district. At the close of his bloody wars with the Danish invaders, king Alfred as a matter of policy, allowed them to colonise East Anglia, and the memorials of their occupation are retained in the local terminations, *thorpe*, a village, *by* a farm or village; *oe* an island; *toft* a field, and *sted* a place. *Holm* is an Anglo Saxon term for island; *fleg*, a flat; *Burgh*, a Teutonic affix common on this coast, is an indication of the Roman occupation, and was affixed to the burghs or towns, built as defences along the shores, and to overawe their native allies. Nelson is a Danish patronymic. At the Norman Conquest, the sons of the powerful Earl Godwin had large possessions here, which passed to the Conqueror. By William and his successors, the soil was portioned among their Norman followers, the Bigods, Beachamps, Fitz Osberts, Gournays, Astleys, Bosviles, Albinis, &c.

No Celtic remains of importance are found here, but an abundance of British remains have been disinterred from Barrows. British entrenchments have not been met with. From the scarcity of stone, they would probably consist of earthworks, which have disappeared under the cultivation of the soil. The

* The Ethnology of Yarmouth would appear also to possess unusually strong attractions. In the "Railroad Book of England," the town is described as "specially remarkable for the surpassing beauty of its female population of every rank of life." We decline to plead guilty to having undertaken any profound research to clear up this point, but if strongly pressed as to our opinion of the writer's credibility, we should be disposed to answer with Shylock:— "Tis very true."

leaving it to the "formosæ puellæ" of Yarmouth to finish the quotation,—

"O wise and upright judge!

A Daniel come to judgement! yea a Daniel!

O wise young judge! how I do honour thee!

O noble judge! O excellent young man!"

traces of Roman occupation, are both numerous and widely spread. Caister St. Edmunds, near Norwich, was the *Venta Icenorum* of the Romans, the chief city of the district, and here for several centuries past, numerous remains have been brought to light,—funeral urns, coins, glass, lamps, fibulæ, gold rings, and other minor antiquities. At Caister, was one of the largest *Castræ Hibernæ* of the Roman forces, containing an area of thirty-five acres, and capable of holding an entire legion of six thousand men. The remains of other camps more or less preserved, exist at Castle Rising, Castle Acre, Taesburgh, &c. The larger camps were expeditionary *Castræ*, *Æstivæ*, and *Hibernæ*, for summer and winter quarters, varying in strength according to the duration of occupation. Smaller camps, called *præsidia* or *castellæ*, were constructed for securing their conquests by permanent garrisons. These last, were strongly fortified by earthworks or stone walls, and perhaps no better preserved, or more interesting example remains, than that of Burgh Castle,—of which we have given a description at page 166. In connection with these, smaller entrenchments were thrown up in some districts, to serve as out-posts, and keep up the lines of communication between the more important stations.

The vestiges discovered of houses beyond the walls of Caister St. Edmunds, are interesting, as shewing the gradual transformation of the beleaguered camp into the peaceful city, extending its limits beyond the belt of fortification, and exchanging the military for a municipal character. It has been a controversy with modern archæologists, whether the notices in the Saxon and early Norman writers of the *Venta Icenorum* apply to Caister, or to Norwich, three miles distant. They would seem to apply to the latter. A town had gathered round the Castle of Norwich, and the inhabitants of Caister gradually migrated to it. This transference of old stations to adjacent towns, is seen in old and new Windsor, old and new Sarum.

The Saxon and Danish antiquities of Norfolk, are chiefly of a military character, dykes, earthworks, camps, and barrows. The mounts or Castle hills of Thetford and Norwich Castle, were the most important fortifications of that period, and the scenes of sanguinary struggles between the Saxons and their Danish invaders. The Danish camp at Thetford, is the most remarkable in the kingdom. It is a tumulus, a hundred feet in height, near a thousand in circumference, its steep sides forming an angle of more than forty degrees, and the base surrounded by a double ditch for defence.

Of the Norman period, the remains of civil, military, and domestic architecture, are scanty. The keep of Norwich which has been enclosed in a modern casing, and the fine ruins of Castle Rising, are the most important. Of the castellated mansions which replaced the fortresses of the turbulent Norman barons,

Caister by Yarmouth, is the most interesting example remaining.

The walls and towers of Yarmouth, the walls and gates of Lynn, and the fine gate entrances near the Cathedral precincts of Norwich, are curious and invaluable specimens of the civic fortifications of the middle ages.

Fitly to describe the characteristics of the *ecclesiastical architecture* of East Anglia, would require a volume. In no other part of the kingdom have the churches so many curious, beautiful, and distinctive features, and in no other district will the lover of our old churches find so much that will interest and repay careful examination in almost every village church.

Our examples will have to be restricted to the immediate neighbourhood.

From the Norman Conquest down to a not remote period, no part of England enjoyed a greater commercial prosperity than that of our eastern coast lying opposite the shores of France and Holland. The most enduring indications of that prosperity will be found in the ample offerings devoted to the service of God, in the erection and the adornment of churches and religious houses. Of these last, there were at the Dissolution, in the county of Norfolk alone, one hundred and twenty-three monastic foundations, many, largely endowed. Their possessions passed into the spoilers' hands, and the fabrics stripped of lead and whatever else was convertible into money, were left to go to ruin. At the present day their remains are few and far between. Hardly a vestige remains of the magnificent Abbey of St. Benet's Holme, on the Bure; the most remarkable ruins are those of Castleacre and Binham priories. The nave of the Dominican Convent, St. Andrew's, Norwich, has been saved by its conversion into a Municipal Hall, and a portion of the Abbey of Wymondham now serves as the parish church.

Norfolk was particularly rich in celebrated reliques and miraculous images. Amongst them we may briefly instance St. Blithe, of Martham; St. John the Baptist's Head, at Trimmingham; the holy thorn from our Saviour's Crown, at Yarmouth; the good sword of Winfarthing, before which, wives who longed to be widows, kept a light burning for a twelve month. The most celebrated of all the Norfolk reliques, was the milk at Walsingham Church, visited and described by Erasmus.

The Norman tower of Norwich Cathedral is the richest in its details, and the loftiest in height of any of that period in the kingdom. Its Norman nave is also unequalled in length and height. Hardly a pure or perfect example of the Saxon or Norman churches remains.* A few apsidal chancels as at Fritton, two Norman west fronts—at Castle Acre, and Castle Rising,—and a considerable number of fine Norman doorways which have survived the restoring rage of the perpendicular period, are the chief

* Clippeby, on the Broads, has an interesting little Norman church.

antiquities of that style remaining in Norfolk. Pure examples of *early English* are equally rare. Specimens of *decorated church architecture* are more numerous, but abound chiefly in the western side of the county. Of the rare miscellaneous features of church architecture, are the baptistry at Trunch; another far inferior, is in the noble church of St. Peter, Mancroft, Norwich, (a third exists at Luton, Beds.)—at Northwold Church, near Swaffham, is an elaborately carved *holy sepulchre*, one of three in the kingdom,—at Shettisham is a *western galilee*, and the ruins of another at Cromer, where is also a *rood turret*. At Winterton is an early *sacristy*.

In Domesday book, whilst only one church is recorded as existing in Cambridgeshire, and none in Lancashire, Cornwall, or Middlesex, two hundred and forty-three churches are mentioned in Norfolk, and three hundred and sixty-four in Suffolk. Of the noble proportions and splendid decoration of many of these fabrics sufficient remains at the present day to testify. Our space will only permit us to point out the distinctive peculiarities of the district, its round towers,—rood screens,—frescoes,—flint work,—and profuse wood carving.

Round Church Towers are very numerous in Norfolk and Suffolk, one hundred and twenty being computed to exist in the former county alone, situate principally in its south east corner.* Britton and other antiquarians of the last generation, attributed their construction to the Danes. They are now generally admitted to belong to the Norman period, some few are earlier, and some later. Their circular form arose from the geology of the district, which abounding in boulders was destitute of quarries where squared stones for the corners of rectangular towers might be procured. As the pitch of the roofs of the churches was raised in the early English and later styles, it became necessary to give the towers greater elevation, and the summits of many of them were subsequently heightened and made octangular. Pointed arches were introduced. Their masonry consists of rough and cut flints laid in very tenacious mortar, and in regular courses. In some, alternate courses of flint and brick, or tile, have been used, as at Fritton and Ashby. In the later examples, squared flints laid outwards with great regularity have been employed. Their height usually averages from fifty to sixty feet, with a diameter of sixteen, the thickness of the wall occupying a large proportion. The towers batter or narrow all the way up, several contract as far as the upper stage only. Some of their summits may have been re-built and heightened from injury arising from the vibration of the bells. At Blundeston, windows originally at the summit, are now in the middle stage. Many have no internal flooring.

The two finest examples of round church towers are at Herring-

* A list of thirty-two Round Church Towers in Suffolk, will be found in No. 9 of the East Anglian, Jan. 1861, published by S. Tymms, Lowestoft.

fleet and Haddiscoe, villages lying near together and easy of access, via St. Olave's station, East Suffolk line—from both Yarmouth and Lowestoft. Repps Church has also a good round tower.

Rood Screens. Norfolk is celebrated for these, enriched with panel paintings and polychrome. Its antiquaries assert that a greater number of these panel paintings are to be found in Norfolk alone, than in all the rest of the kingdom put together:—with the exception of Devonshire, very few are to be met with elsewhere. Mr. Hart has enumerated fifty of the Norfolk churches* as containing within his own knowledge, painted rood screens, either in a perfect or fragmentary state, and many churches are still to be explored. Three hundred of these screens at the very lowest estimate must have fallen a prey to the superstitious rage of the puritans, or the neglect and false taste of more recent times. Suffolk is almost equally rich in rood screens. Their introduction arose probably from the proximity of these counties to the Low Countries, and this supposition is strengthened from their great resemblance to Flemish art. They were the work of a number of native artists, whose names appear in the payments entered in the various church books. A few are painted in oils, many in distemper or body colour. In some, the gold diaper back grounds have been stamped in with an instrument upon a plaster composition. These paintings usually comprise figures of the patron saints of the church and district, carefully painted with their appropriate emblems, the screen work serving as canopies for their heads. Red and green are the predominating colours. Many of the faces have been obliterated by puritan fanaticism. Fine examples of these screens will be found at Ransworth, Southwold, Blundeston, Filby, and Burlingham St. Edmunds.

Frescoes. Every year as the accumulated coats of whitewash are stripped from the walls of the churches of this district, frescoes come to light. Many have been discovered within the last few years, and it seems probable that all the parish churches had their interior walls originally ornamented with large paintings, many of them rude, and the work of artists, inferior to the painters of the rood screens. Legends of the saints, especially that of St. Christopher,—and representations of the Last Judgment, appear to have formed the most popular subjects. The most remarkable in the vicinity of Yarmouth, are at Belton. Those at Haddiscoe and Fritton, have a strong similarity. Engravings of the fresco at Burlingham St. Edmunds, will be found in the *Norfolk Archæologia*. They appear to have been painted on dry plaster prepared with size.

Flint work—is a very beautiful, peculiar, and prevalent feature in the churches of Norfolk and Suffolk, along its eastern coast. In the absence of stone, the builders had recourse to the flints which abound upon the sea shore, and in the diluvial gravel beds.

* In his Paper on the Antiquities of Norfolk.

Usually found in small and irregular sizes, they were not easily adapted to flat surfaces, or thin walls. In large buildings, where thickness of wall was required, they prove superior to most other substances, when faced with square stones and strongly cemented with good fluid mortar. The tenacity of this material is strikingly evidenced in the huge masses of ruin which encumber the eastern end of Cromer churchyard. Flints were thus employed by the Romans in Burgh Castle, and later they were used in Norwich Castle, Castle Rising, and many of the old churches. Mr. Wilkins, an architect largely employed in the district in the early part of this century, observes that 'no material whatever can exceed the durability of flints—for we do not find anywhere an instance of their perishing by frosty or wet weather; and when squared and laid with care, they are extremely beautiful.' Very fine examples of pannelled flint work exist in Cromer and Southwold Churches, and in the Bishop's Palace Gateway and the Erpingham Gateway, both adjoining Norwich Cathedral.* Perhaps the very finest specimen of flint work in the whole kingdom is the Thorpe Chantry Chapel, on the south east of St. Michael's Coslany Church, Norwich. It is set in a framework of white stone inlaid in patterns of Gothic tracery; lozenges, &c., relieving the dark colour of the flint; and the whole work is squared so neatly and joined so imperceptibly, as to resemble a plate of glass. The old city Bridewell, and the Guildhall in the Market Place, are also fine examples. Mr. Wilkins, writes "the art of squaring the flints in this curious manner is now almost totally neglected, though I am convinced it might very soon be brought to perfection again, from the facility I observed the workmen acquire by a little practice in repairing."—The experiment has been made of reviving this most picturesque and indigenous mode of construction in several of the recently erected churches of Yarmouth. The Roman Catholic church is a very good example.

Some of the Norfolk and Suffolk churches have rich embattled parapets of stone and flint panel work, but in general an absence of parapets and of transepts is noticeable. The want of these last is partially compensated for by the fine porches attached to many of the churches, most of them with parvises over.† It is upon

* John Evelyn records in his account of his visit to Sir Thomas Browne, at Norwich, in 1672,—“He led me to see all the remarkable places of this ancient city, being one of the largest and certainly, after London, one of the noblest of England, for its venerable cathedral, number of stately churches, cleanness of the streets, and buildings of flints so exquisitely headed and squared; as I was much astonished at; but he told me they had lost the art of squaring the flints, in which they had so much excelled, and of which the churches, best houses, and walls, are built.”

† Parvises are common in Norfolk and Suffolk. Anciently the church porches were put to several uses. Acolytes addressed the congregation from them, prior to entering the church, and marriages were partly performed in them. Records and libraries were stored in the upper chamber. Frequently a priest was accustomed to educate the children of the parish in the porch.

these porches that much of the finest and most elaborate flint work has been lavished. Those at Beccles, Southwold, Lowestoft, Winterton, and Hemsby, may be instanced.

Wood and Stone Carving. No part of England was originally richer in profuse and elaborate ecclesiastical wood carving than this, and fortunately many fine examples more or less preserved have come down to us. Hardly a church but has its precious fragment. The period of its execution appears to coincide with the rise and growth of the perpendicular style of architecture, a style with which it so admirably harmonises. It would seem that in the two centuries preceding the Reformation, a general movement set in in Norfolk and Suffolk, for building, restoring, enlarging, and decorating the churches. The district appears to have suffered less than its neighbours in the bloody wars of the Roses, its home and foreign commerce was in the noon-day of its prosperity. Many new windows were inserted, and most of the earlier rood and chantry screens perished to make way for successors more rich and elaborate. To such a pitch was the passion for ornamenting the churches with painted screen work carried, that there are not a few instances of a second screen supporting a gallery in the tower arch. New fonts in most of the churches now unfortunately replaced the more ancient examples.* A very common type is the octagon bowl, containing in panels the symbols of the four evangelists, alternating with angels bearing on shields the emblems of the passion, the basement supported frequently by sculptured lions—others have the seven sacraments, and the crucifixion, or the last judgment. The number of beautiful windows filled with stained glass, the richly carved doorways, porches, sedilia, chantries, font canopies, stall and shrine work now introduced into the churches is incredible. Painted pulpits were not uncommon, of design and execution similar to those which still adorn the fine churches of the west of England. Here they have become rare. One may be seen in the church of Southwold, a fabric rich in wood carving. The chantries or side chapels which led to the addition of north and south aisles to so many churches were many of them erected by guilds and confraternities connected with the church as purgatorial benefit societies. Masses were offered in these for the repose of the souls of departed members or pious founders, and with indulgences were employed by the clergy as

whence it was called the Parvise, à parvis pueris ibi edoctis. Chaucer writes of

“A sergeant at law, ware and wisé,

That had often been at the parvise”

Down to a modern period, schools were held in the church porches; the father of the poet Crabbe was in early life the keeper of the parochial school in the porch of Orford church.

* Brundall church retains its early leaden font. Martham, Gorleston, Lowestoft, and Haddiscoe, possess fine examples of perpendicular fonts. Fine tombs are not common in the churches of the immediate neighbourhood. Those at Ingham are the best,

important agencies for acting on the superstitious fears of their congregations. Of the stained glass so lavishly employed, but few fragments have come down to us. Apart from the havoc wreaked upon it by bigotry and fanaticism, there would seem to exist in human nature an innate propensity for the destruction of this beautiful but brittle material. The best examples near Yarmouth, are in the aisle windows of Martham.

Brasses. The most interesting brasses in Norfolk are those at St. Margaret's church, King's Lynn, Elsing, Felbrigg, Helleston, Ingham, and Ormesby St. Margaret's, and there are about 25 figure brasses in the churches of Norwich. In Suffolk, those at Acton, Gorleston, Ipswich, Long Melford, Sotterley, and Stoke, may be mentioned, and there were in Oulton church two very fine brasses, which were stolen in February, 1857. The church of St. Nicholas, Yarmouth, was formerly very rich in brasses, but not one now remains, a circumstance fully accounted for by an order of assembly, made Nov. 17, 1551, when it was agreed "that the churchwardens shall deliver unto Mr. Bailiffs the brasses that were upon the gravestones in the church, to be carried to London to melt for weights and measures of brass, for the use of the town—at the town's charge." The brasses within easy distance of Yarmouth, are in the churches of Acle, Burgh St. Edmunds, Clippesby, Ingham, Norwich, Loddon, Ormesby St. Margaret's, Stokesby, all in Norfolk;—Gorleston, Darsham, Lowestoft, Pakefield, and Sowerby, in Suffolk.

In closing our notes on the churches we would remind visitors who are strangers to the district, that they are within reach of many of the noblest churches in the kingdom. Suffolk is famed for the beauty and magnitude of these structures. Among those most worthy of examination, may be instanced, Framlingham, with its side chapels filled with splendid tombs of the ducal family of Norfolk.—St. Mary and St. James, Bury,—Lavenham Church, pronounced by some the finest perpendicular church in England,—Long Melford, Hadleigh, Sudbury, Stoke by Neyland, Dennington, Bacton, Worlingworth, &c. Norfolk, if not quite so rich as its neighbour has many superb fabrics. There is a cluster of them round North Walsham, and a still finer series on the Wash—Lynn, St. Peter Walpole, Walsingham, Wiggenshall, &c.—Hingham, Wymondham, and East Harling, rank also among the best churches in the county.

St. Nicholas Church, Yarmouth, will prove a mine of interest to archæological visitors. It contains examples of every period, from Norman, downwards to the very lowest depths of stucco and white-wash degradation. Its transition work is very interesting, and the grandeur of its proportions compensates for the absence of that rich decoration to be found in some neighbouring churches. Abundant vestiges still remain in the chancel to indicate its

original splendour and adornment.* Cromer, (now in course of restoration,) Lowestoft, and Southwold, are all churches of the first class in magnitude and excellence of detail.

Numerous old houses still retaining many curious and interesting features exist in Yarmouth, though comparatively few are of any great antiquity. Unfortunately most of them have modern fronts of plain brickwork, affording no indication of the antique chambers within. The best examples are those instanced in the note to page 42. The fine old mansions on the south quay have particularly suffered from these ill-advised renovations. Their original period of construction is assigned to the latter part of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when a sudden flush of prosperity seems to have overspread the town, arising from the large participation of its merchants in the successful buccaneering ventures of Drake, Raleigh, and other daring seamen of the same gallant stock. A strange fatality has attended the many spacious ranges of monastic buildings which once occupied so large a space within the walls of old Yarmouth. Of several, every vestige is obliterated, and of the remainder,—here and there, embedded in the rows—a crypt, an archway, groined roof, old doorway, corbel or moulding, are all that will requite the industrious exploration of the antiquary. The chief fragments are briefly noticed in our itinerary through the town. The necessities of Yarmouth arising from the civil wars impelled the corporation to alienate the sites, gardens, and ruined dwellings of the religious houses which came into their hands at the dissolution.† Down

* Since the earlier sheets of this Guide were printed off, we have been favoured by Mr. Morant, with an account of a most interesting discovery made by him in October, 1860.

From the time of Manship downwards, every historian of the town has copied from his account of the church, the commencement A.D., 1330 of—"new buildings, which may now well be termed old foundations, in the west end of the same, they do contain within the walls in length 107 feet, and in breadth 47 feet,"—to be erected by the young men of the town, and thence called the Bachelors' aisle,—and how that after being in progress eighteen years, a visitation of the plague, causing in one year the death of seven thousand of the inhabitants, led to its final abandonment. No particulars appear to have been known of the plan of this addition, and it has generally been believed to have been intended for the purpose of providing further accommodation for the congregation of the church. The foundations recently discovered, shew that instead of this being the case, it was evidently proposed to erect a fine western front with two towers, which would have given to the church quite the appearance of a cathedral, as it would then have consisted of nave and two aisles, western towers, central tower, and transepts, chancel and two aisles, and Lady chapel. The work was evidently intended to be very massive, as the walls are eight feet in thickness, and there is the indication of a very deeply recessed doorway in the centre. The dimensions of the building as given by Manship are correct. The work was allowed gradually to fall into decay, and appears to have been partially taken down about the year 1650, as an order was made in the Assembly, that such stones as were not useful in building, should be carried to the haven mouth for the piers, and in 1715, when St. George's chapel was built, the stone required was taken from this ruin.

† It is not difficult to call up the ancient aspect of Yarmouth, long, narrow, and slightly curved, extending a mile in length, it had two fronts, the western

to 1677, no buildings existed between the western side of King Street, and the old walls, with the exception of the Priory, St. Mary's Hospital, (on which now stands the Children's Hospital) and the Castle, (near the site of St. George's Chapel).^{*} From St. Nicholas Church southwards, for nearly a mile, ran a spacious plain, of which the present Market Place is but a narrowed fragment, and down the centre for a considerable distance was an avenue of limes. From their lofty upper chambers the old merchants and burgesses of King Street enjoyed a splendid prospect of the Roads and Haven, the old walls and towers along whose rampart ran a walk, occupying the foreground. It was to preserve this sea view, that the corporation passed their resolution in 1808 that all buildings on the Denes should be restricted to twenty feet in height. Chopped down, altered, and re-built, the houses on the western side the Market Place still retain a considerable portion of their original picturesqueness, and perhaps no other range of similar dwellings in England, can shew a sky line more striking from its lofty and irregular outlines. In George Street, Howard Street, Gaol Street, Charlotte Street, King Street, and the Rows, many fine old houses may be hunted up,^{*} gradually sinking to ignobler uses than those for which they were originally designed.

A visitor can hardly fail to notice the very portly bow windows carried up to the roof, attached to many large houses in King Street and on the Quay. The great destroyer of the gabled, quaint old fronts, with their long many-lighted windows, which formerly abounded in Yarmouth, was the window tax, which has to answer for so much of our modern ugly street architecture. Large numbers of these ancient fronts were preserved down to the imposition of this tax. Its provisions injudiciously limited the size of the window, or charged double or treble as the case might be, and as a consequence, most of the old windows then existing were either destroyed, or reduced in size. In the domestic architecture of the eighteenth century it was the fashion to have numerous narrow windows, such as may be seen in the front of the Yarmouth parsonage. Upon these the effect of the tax was to induce the owner to block up as many windows as possible, and enlarge a few of the rest. New houses were built with windows expressly designed to give as much light and to pay as little tax as

looking upon a wide and unencumbered quay, the eastern facing the Denes. Jammed between them, stood the densely packed mass of houses to which the numerous rows served as arteries. On the south precinct of St. Nicholas' Church was the Priory. A little south of it was Thomas Fastolf's Hospital of St. Mary, opposite to which, the buildings of the White Friars stretched downward to the quay. About the centre of the quay was the house of the Grey Friars, and at its south end the Black Friars. Facing the east front, ran the fortified wall, with towers and gates at intervals, its northern and eastern bounds drawn round St. Nicholas' churchyard, its southern round the precincts of the Black Friars. The area enclosed, was 133 acres.

^{*} The castle precincts stretched towards the western side.

possible. Several good examples of these may be seen on the western side of St. George's chapel.

Half a day may be profitably spent by the archæologist in examining the construction and tracing the course of the old walls and towers of Yarmouth. We have briefly described them, and cited their most accessible points of interest, pages 27-30. The additional strengthening which the walls received during the sixteenth century, for the purpose of carrying heavy ordnance,—by rampiring and raising brick arches along the inner face of their eastern side, above which ran a walk from end to end, with doorways through the towers,—is best seen in the portion which exists in excellent preservation, at the back of the Childrens' Hospital. Here also is one of the old towers, of whose existence many inhabitants of the town are probably unaware.

The Yarmouth Toll-house Gaol is an interesting example of Early English. Bequeathed to the corporation exactly five centuries ago, it is one of the earliest prisons in the country. The "dungeons or night rooms down a ladder of ten steps," described by John Howard, still remain, tenanted as sleeping rooms, and are perhaps the oldest prison cells now in use in England. Their doors and bolts are of the most ponderous and massive description.

The Yarmouth Hutch, or Town Chest, with its curious wrought keys and bolts, is one of the largest and most remarkable examples in the kingdom of its class of ancient ironwork. The present Hutch which supplied the place of a more ancient chest, has since 1607 served as the strong box for money, plate, records, and old tallies of the corporation. Probably it had previously been a church chest. Manship describes one as kept in the church vestry in his day. In 1631, we read of it as deposited in the Guild Hall, at the gateway of the church. Later it was moved to the Toll-house, and quite recently it has been transferred to the new Record Room, constructed at the back of the Town Hall. Its exterior has been very richly repainted in polychrome, with longitudinal bars of diaper patterns, copied from the best existing examples of the Norfolk Rood Screens. The arms of the town have been also emblazoned upon it, and it forms a very striking ornament to the handsome apartment in which it is now placed.*

Several ancient seals are in the possession of the Yarmouth corporation. They will be found engraved and described in Mr. Palmer's Notes to Manship. The most interesting, perhaps, is the old town seal, called 'St. Nicholas' Seal,' used probably as early as the thirteenth century. On the obverse is the seated figure of the saint, with the legend. † O: PASTOR: VERE: TIBI: SVBIECTIS: MISERERE. On the reverse is a ship, and in the sea three herrings *naiant*, with the legend SIGILLVM: COMVNITATIS: DE. GERNEMVTHÆ:

* An illustrated paper upon the Hutch, written by Mr. O. J. Palmer, appears in vol. 6 of the Norfolk Archæologia.

For the ancient Merchants' Marks, and the Tokens issued by the traders of Yarmouth, we must refer our readers to Mr. Palmer's Continuation of Manship. In 1667, to meet a scarcity of copper coinage, the overseers of Yarmouth, with the sanction of the corporation procured a dye and issued a number of brass farthings. Two years later, a second issue was put in circulation. A government prosecution ensued. The king's pardon was besought, and by Lord Townshend's mediation obtained, at a cost of £80, and the farthings were cried down by the bellman.

THE HERRING FISHERY.

"History so prodigal of recital when discoursing of naval battles, or butcheries on the sea, keeps silence when it has to do with the peaceful contentions of man with the elements. It would seem that acts of heroism lose their right to celebration, the moment they become useful."

"In the daily toil of the fisherman there is that which powerfully appeals to human sympathies. The perils which hourly encompass him,—the precariousness of his harvest, reaped by God's blessing where he has not sown,—that great deep on which his bark reposes trustfully,—those long night watches,—all invest it with an interest and a pathos which attach to few other employments. It received a solemn consecration in the hour, when by the Lake of Galilee, the Saviour chose out two poor fishermen to be his first disciples.

Whilst the fate of the tiller of the soil has been too often to sink into the serf, but one remove from the beast of the field,—from time immemorial, the fisherman has remained erect, manly, independent. His daily hazards have engendered coolness, courage, promptness, endurance, hardihood. The fisher boat has been the cradle of the seaman, the nursery of all maritime greatness.

It was not without a fitting sense of their relative importance to their country's grandeur and prosperity, that the Dutch bestowed upon the Herring Fishery, the title of the great fishery, and to that of the Whale, the little fishery."

Early History.

Judging from the records which have come down to us, it would seem that our herring, the *Clupea harengus*, was unknown to the ancients. It was a stranger to the Mediterranean, and no allusion to it appears in the Greek or Roman writers. Dion Cassius, (born A.D. 155,) mentions that the northern coasts of England swarmed with fish, but that these islanders, owing to some foolish superstition, never tasted them. Solinas, (A.D. 200,) says, the inhabitants of Scotland derived at that time their chief sustenance from fisheries, which we may reasonably suppose included the herring. The oldest document known to refer to the Herring Fishery, is found in the Chronicles of the Monastery of Evesham, A.D., 709. Herrings appear in the early records of the Monastery of Barking, a tax being levied on them, called "Herring Silver." The fishery is mentioned in the charter of the foundation of the abbey of St. Catherine, Rouen, A.D., 1030. In 1141, a company was formed at Paris, under the title confrérie des marchands de l'eau. The herring fishery was largely carried on in Scotland, in the ninth century,

and continued until the convention of Royal Burghs prohibited the exportation of fish, before the resident population was supplied at a stipulated price. This interference drove the fishermen from Scotland to Holland, and drew the attention of the Dutch to the value of the Scotch fisheries. A number of enactments were passed under James III, IV, and V of Scotland, for the promotion of the fisheries. In the thirteenth century the Danes had so large a commerce in herrings, that Helmold, one of the continuers of the Slavonic Chronicle, describes them as clad in purple and scarlet, thanks to the gold which strangers brought to exchange for fish.

The period when the art of curing the herring was discovered, has given rise to discussion. A mode of salting fish was known to the Greeks, and is alluded to in one of the plays of Aristophanes. English charters of the eleventh and twelfth centuries mention salt herrings, and regulate the number of fish which barrels ought to contain. We read that at the beginning of the twelfth century were "herring fisheries in the Baltic, to which many foreign vessels resorted," and it follows these herrings must have been salted. In 1290, part of the dried fish shipped at Yarmouth, in the victualling of a vessel to bring the Maiden of Norway, the infant Queen of Scotland from her father king Eric, were *herrings*, and of course, *cured*. In 1385, (Ed. III.) *white* herrings are named as found in vessels captured by the Cinque Ports, and in the same reign, *red herrings* also are specified by name.

It would appear therefore that both modes of curing had been practised before the birth of William Beukelings or Denkelazoon, to whom the merit of the great discovery has been assigned, and that he may be more fairly esteemed the perfecter of an incomplete process. Few discoveries have produced such an amount of wealth, whilst demanding no sacrifice from humanity. The humble events, disdained by history, escape not the notice of those who place at the pinnacle of political occurrences, the revolutions accomplished in the food and comfort of modern nations. In the eyes of the economist, there are no such things as vile products. "L'Hareng," wrote Lacépède, "*est une de ces productions d'ont l'emploi décide de la destinée des empires.*" It was the herring packed in barrels which changed the historic destinies of Holland, and, by consequence, the destinies of the world during the 16th and 17th century. An industry which exercised so great an influence in the Revolution in the Low Countries, and on the events which followed it is not unworthy of attention. The Gospels relate that one of the disciples of Christ found in the mouth of a fish a piece of money, wherewith to pay the tribute: that is the history of Holland; she found in the herring's mouth the means to pay her excessive imposts, to provide for the maintenance of a soil which the sea threatened to engulf, and to nourish the sources of public wealth.* Doubtless there

* *La Néerlande et la vie Hollandaise, par Alphonse Esquiros.*

have been some exaggerations as to the enormous dimensions of the herring fishery, the "gold mine" of Holland, which first indulged in by De Witt and other Dutch statesmen to magnify their country's greatness, were repeated by Sir William Temple and a host of later pamphleteers, unchallenged. To admit their statistics would be to conclude that the whole male population of the Seven Provinces, were engaged in catching, pickling, and salting herrings.* They served one unhappy purpose, to rouse and embitter the feeling of jealousy with which England saw the Dutch vessels gather upon our coasts abundant harvests of the manna of the sea;—to that jealousy, embittered by the keen rivalries of commerce, we may ascribe the acquiescence on the part of Englishmen in those oppressive and ungenerous hostilities towards a small but gallant nation, which English Sovereigns and their ministers leagued with France, displayed during the last two centuries, and which, now that we can read them in cold blood, wear a somewhat ignoble aspect.

It is beyond our province to describe the growth of the Dutch Herring Fishery. Its dimensions were small, and confined to the coast, until the Scandinavian sovereigns, early in the fifteenth century, wishing to check the Hanseatic towns, invited the Dutch to establish a fishery on their coasts. This led to the construction of busses, or deep sea boats. In 1416, the first long herring seine net was made at Hoorn, and the same year witnessed Beukeling's invention of curing. These concurrent events revolutionised the fishery, and led to the Dutch herrings being carried all over the world. Their treaties and disputes with England we have described at page 19. In the middle of the sixteenth century commenced the series of calamities which ruined the Dutch fisheries. Charles I put to sea in 1636, a powerful fleet under the command of the Earl of Northumberland, to enforce upon the Dutch an observance of his prohibitions. The Dutch were surprised upon our coasts, dispersed, and Holland was compelled to sign a convention, purchasing the right of fishery for a yearly payment of 30,000 florins. Cromwell, irritated by their maltreatment of the Yarmouth fishermen, and their neglect in paying the stipulated tribute, directed Blake to drive their busses off the coast. July 22, 1652, he attacked the convoy of twelve vessels of war, capturing them, together with two hundred busses. Van Tromp at the head of a squadron sought revenge, but a storm

* The statistics of the Dutch fishery, even when at its apogee, must have been egregiously overrated. In 1615, two thousand busses are said to have sailed from the ports of Holland, manned by thirty-seven thousand seamen. Three years later, the number mounts up to three thousand, with fifty thousand men exclusively occupied with the fisheries, whilst nine thousand other vessels manned by one hundred and fifty thousand sailors protected the fishery, and carried on the commerce and carrying trade of Holland. Every twenty busses was computed to main directly, or indirectly, eight thousand people.

drove apart the two hostile fleets. The overwhelming onslaught of England and France combined, which followed later, accelerated the ruin of this once lucrative and famous branch of industry. In 1703, by order of Louis XIV, a French squadron totally destroyed their fleet of herring smacks, and finally the competition of the Swedes, and the closing of the ports by the English during the war with Napoleon, completed its ruin.

It is chiefly from the enactments and ordinances of successive sovereigns, that the early history of the English Fisheries can be traced. At the time of the conquest a great number of maritime fiefs on the eastern coast carried on the herring fishery, and there were numerous *salinæ* in Norfolk and Suffolk. An immense number of herrings were taken in the large æstuaries which at that period covered their eastern valleys. Norwich and Beccles were great rival marts for the sale of herrings. There is evidence of Norwich being a fishing town in the reign of Canute, for Alfric, bishop of East Anglia, having bestowed his *hagh*, by Norwich, (the site on which the church of St. Lawrence was afterwards erected,) upon the Abbey of St. Edmunds Bury, an annual ground rent was paid to that monastery of a last of herrings. The fee farm rent of 30,000 herrings paid to Edward the Confessor on the manor of Beccles, was at the Domesday survey raised by the Conqueror to a tallage of 60,000, and many similar imposts are recorded in Domesday as paid by the villages and towns upon the shores of the æstuaries. Yarmouth was under the Conqueror a considerable fishing port, and its coast served as the rendezvous of the fishermen of Europe, attracted thither no less by that rich bank of herrings which has adhered to its shores from the earliest period on record down to the present day with an unexampled fidelity,—than by the unusual freedom granted for the disposal of their catch at that famous Free Fair (see page 17) which for several centuries was the great European mart for the sale and purchase of the herring. The provost appointed in 1128 by Henry I, to govern the town, received a feudal rent of 10,000 herrings.

In 1386, Richard II exempted from feudal service all the herring fishers “of Blackeney and of Cley, and of all that coast.” The English fishermen gradually extended their voyages. Early in the fourteenth century they frequented the shores of Norway and Denmark. Eric of Pomerania, was then upon the throne, and he complained to the English king of the excessive number of English boats which covered the seas that fringed his estates. Henry V listened to his complaints, and writs were issued to fourteen of our fishing ports prohibiting them to fish there for the future. It was about this period that the Dutch fishery shot ahead of all its rivals, reaping its richest harvests off the coast of Yarmouth. The treaty known in history as the *intercursus* between Henry VII and the Duke of Burgundy, sovereign of the Low Countries, concluded in 1494, and which stipulated that the

fishermen of the two nations should fish freely every where, some writers affirm to be the veritable cause of the maritime glory which the Dutch later acquired. The English fishermen seem to have found it more profitable to buy from the Dutch a great part of their take, carrying on themselves but a brief fishery, and placing on the sea only a small number of boats. In 1542, Henry VIII promulgated an act stating that the English had contracted the bad habit of going to sea without nets, and purchasing fish direct from on board the Flemish and French vessels. From this period up to 1555, various regulations succeeded for remedying these abuses, specially at Yarmouth. Religion was called in to the aid of state policy, as the statutes of Edward VI prove, which complain of the breach of abstinence from flesh, and which add that in prescribing fasting on the days ordered by the church, it would occasion a great consumption of fish, and give active occupation to the fishery. This policy was deemed so important, that Elizabeth was advised to establish a political lent. The ostensible end was the preservation of the cattle, but the true object was to increase the number of seamen, and establish a powerful marine.

A few years later, and Holland had attained to the pinnacle of earthly greatness and prosperity. It was by means of the hardy seamen trained in its fishery, that it had both shaken off the tyranny of Spain and the Inquisition, and had made itself at once the broker, the merchant, and the carrier of Europe, and the wealthiest state of that century. Proud of the lowliness of its birth, its statesmen ascribed the origin and source of this sudden and unexampled rise to the herring fishery. Upon the rulers and politicians of surrounding kingdoms the spectacle had a prodigious effect, and a factitious degree of importance was henceforward attached to the development of their own fisheries.

An ill feeling had been growing up between England and Holland arising from this fishery, and it was now still further aggravated by the statistics put forth by the writers of both countries. But whilst the English people bitterly denounced the trespass of the Dutch herring busses upon their coast, they do not seem to have made any vigorous effort themselves to occupy that field of industry from which they warned off their neighbours. Sir Walter Raleigh sought to rouse his countrymen from their apathy by over coloured representations of the commercial greatness of Holland.* One of the most curious and important

* Sir Walter Raleigh in his "Observations on the trade and commerce of England with the Dutch and other foreign nations," presented to James I, draws a contrast most unfavourable to his own countrymen. The carrying trade of Holland with England employed six hundred Dutch ships, but not a tenth of that number English. Of fish, the Dutch exported yearly to north and central Europe to the value of upwards of £2,000 000,—our own trade being a mere fraction of that amount. Whilst the Dutch sent annually near a thousand ships to the north east of Europe with wine and salt, England had not one ship in that trade. Their Baltic timber trade employed six

pamphlets of that age was "England's way to win wealth, and to employ ships and mariners," by Tobias Gentleman, fisherman and mariner, 1614. Its statements appear to have produced a profound impression, and were repeatedly quoted by subsequent writers. It is invaluable for the insight it affords us of our English fisheries at a period when they were in their most drooping and decayed condition, and has a rude forcible eloquence, a homely felicity of expression, equal to the happiest passages of Defoe.

Like Raleigh, he sought to shame Englishmen by contrasting their unwise neglect of those great natural advantages with which God had endowed their country with the enterprise and daring shewn by the Dutch in wresting wealth and honour out of adverse and unpropitious circumstance. He pointed out that whilst their territory was but as a little plot compared with Great Britain, the two counties of Suffolk and Norfolk equalling it in size,—all England, Scotland, France, and Spain, for fishermen and shipping could not equal it. "By reason of their industrious fisher trade, not one of their people are idle, nor none seem to beg amongst them, except they be some of our own English nation." He goes on "and what their chiefest trade is, is well known to all merchants, and to myself and all fishermen; namely that his Majesty's seas is their chiefest, principal, and only rich treasury." What Gentleman sought, was the construction of stout fishing busses, for "the setting of many thousands of poor people on work which now know not how to live." He contrasts the Dutch busses with "the poor boats and sorry nets that our fishermen of England now have." After pointing out how lawful, and feasible, and profitable it was for his countrymen to take example from the Dutch, he breaks out,—“And shall we neglect so great blessings, O slothful England, and careless countrymen! Look but on these fellows that we call the plump Hollanders, behold their diligence in fishing, and our own careless negligence!”

The large fishing fleets of Holland are enumerated. By the first of June yearly, a thousand sail are ready to depart 'for to catch herrings in the North Seas.' Six hundred of these were great busses, from 100 tons upwards, the rest 50 and 60 tons burden, each manned by from 16 to 24 men, with a total of 20,000 sailors. They were computed during the season which lasted until November, to lade their ships with fish three times a piece, the herrings amounting in value at the rate of £10 per last, to £1000,000 sterling; no king upon the earth did yet ever see such

hundred great ships, whilst our ships had not a single cargo. Our woollens were exported undressed and undyed to Holland, and after being dressed at Amsterdam, were shipped to Spain and Portugal under the name of Flemish bayes. All these statistics were doubtless very loose and incorrect. The prosperity of Holland was watched during the seventeenth century by its powerful neighbours with the same wrathful envy with which the vast development of England's commercial greatness is now regarded by surrounding nations.

a fleet of his own subjects at any time, and yet this fleet is there, and then yearly to be seen. A most worthy sight it were, if they were my own countrymen; yet have I taken pleasure in being amongst them, to behold the neatness of their ships and fishermen, how every man knoweth his own place, and all labouring merrily together, whereby the poorest sort of themselves, their wives and children, be well maintained, and no want seen amongst them. With this gallant fleet of busses, there have been seen twenty, thirty, and forty ships of war, to waft and guard them from being pillaged and taken by their enemies. They steered in the very heart of summer for the Isles of Shetland. If carried by a favourable wind they arrived before St. John's day, June 24, the day fixed by law for commencing the fishery, they put into Bracy's sound, "and there they frolick it on land, until that they have sucked out all the marrow of the malt and good Scotch ale, which is the best liquor that the island can afford." From this place being nigh two hundred leagues from Yarmouth, do they now first begin to fish; and they do never lose the shoals of herrings, following them as they do come, five hundred miles in length, and lading their ships twice or thrice before they come, to Yarmouth, sending them away by the merchant ships that come unto them, that bring them victuals, barrels, and more salt and nets if they need any. Besides this fleet of busses, the Hollanders have a large number of smaller burthen, 20 to 50 tons, with crews of from 8 to 12 men; these go only for herrings in their season. There have been seen and numbered of busses and these in Bracy's sound, and going out to sea, and at sea, in sight at one time, two thousand sail, besides them which were at sea and could not be numbered.

He next dazzles the eyes of his countrymen with the spectacle of the hard coin which flowed into the coffers of the Dutch, the French crowns, and the Austrian double Jacobuses. "I have seen more there in one day, than ever I did in London at any time, and when the Holland pinks come in, I have seen their women merchants have their aprons full of nothing but English Jacobuses to make all their payment of, and such heaps and budget-fulls in the counting houses of the fish brokers, which made me much to wonder how they should come by them."

"I think it now best" he proceeds "truly to shew the number of our English fishermen, and how they do employ themselves all the year long, from the mouth of the Thames, northward." After describing Harwich, Ipswich, Southwold, &c., all with their fisheries in a 'ruinated' plight, he adds—

"To the northward of Swold-haven, three leagues, are Kirkley and Layestof, decayed towns; they have six or seven North-sea boats, but they of Layestof make benefit yearly of buying herrings of the Hollanders; for likewise these Hollanders are hosted with the Layestof-men, as they be with the Yarmothians.

To the northward, two leagues, is the town of Great Yarmouth, very beautifully built, upon a very pleasant and sandy plain, of three miles in length: in all his Majesty's kingdoms there is not any town comparable unto it for

brave buildings. This town is a place of great resort of all the herring fisherman of England; for thither do resort all the fishermen of the Cinque Ports, and all the rest of the West-countrymen of England, as far as Bridport and Lyme in Dorsetshire: and those herrings that they take, they do not barrel, because their boats are but small things, but they sell all unto the Yarmouth herring buyers for ready money; and also the fishermen of the North countries beyond Scarborough, and Robin Hood's Bay, and some as far as the bishoprick of Durham, do thither resort yearly, in poor little boats, called five-men-cobbles; and all the herrings that they take, they sell fresh unto the Yarmouth men to make red herrings. Also to Yarmouth do daily come into the haven up to the key, all, or the most part of the great fleet of Hollanders, which before I made relation of, that go in the sword-pinks, Holland-toads, crab-skuits, walnut-shells, and great and small yeures, one hundred and two hundred sail at a time together; and all their herrings that they do bring in, they sell them all for ready money to the Yarmouth-men: and also the Frenchmen of Picardy and Normandy, some hundred sail of them at a time, do come thither, and all the herrings they catch they sell fresh unto these herring-mongers of Yarmouth for ready gold: so that it amounteth unto a great sum of money, that the Hollanders and Frenchmen do carry away from Yarmouth yearly into Holland and France, which money doth never come again into England. This town is very well governed by wise and civil magistrates, and good orders are carefully observed for the maintenance of their haven and corporation; and this town, by reason of the situation, and the fresh rivers that belong to it; one up to the city of Norwich, and another that runneth far up into Suffolk, a butter and cheese country, about Bungay and Betkels, and a third that runneth far up into Flegg, a corn country; by reason whereof, I say, this town of Yarmouth is always well served with all kinds of provision at all times plentifully, at good and cheap rates, whereby they of the town do relieve the strangers, and also do benefit themselves. To this town belong some twenty Iceland barks, which yearly they do send for cods and lings, and some hundred and fifty sail of North-sea boats; they make a shift to live, but, if that they had the use of busses, and also barrel fish, they would excell all England and Holland, for they be the only fishermen for the North-seas, and also the best for the handling of their fish that are in all this land."

The English fishermen had not acquired the right art of curing barrelled fish, and in consequence, the foreign markets were almost closed to them. When their busses left off herring fishing, in the winter, they appear to have taken up no other fishery until May, "this last winter at Yarmouth, there were three hundred idle men that could get nothing to do, living very poor for lack of employment, which most gladly would have gone to sea in pinks, if there had been any for them to go in." "It is much to be lamented" "though we have such a plentiful country and store of able and idle people, that not one of His Majesty's subjects is there to be seen all the whole summer to fish or to take one herring: but only the north sea boats of the sea coast towns that go to take cods; they do take so many (herrings) as they need to bait their hooks and no more. We are daily scorned by these Hollanders for being so negligent of our profit, and careless of our fishing; and they do daily flout us that be the poor fishermen of England to our faces at sea, calling to us and saying, *Ya English ya zall, or oud scoue dragien*, which in English is this: you English, we will make you glad to wear our old shoes." Mr. Gentleman next points out how the Dutch by ingrossing the herring fishery had

naturally become possessed of the carrying traffic of Europe, their ships laden with fish returning from the Baltic, Mediterranean and Levant with the productions of their shores. They were striving to supersede the Yarmouth shipping. "Last year, there did lade twelve sails of Holland ships with red herrings at Yarmouth for Leghorn, Genoa, &c., most of them laden by the English merchants, so that if this be suffered, the English owners of ships shall have but small employment for theirs."

After giving a number of statistics of the cost of equipping and manning the herring busses, and of the profitable returns to be expected, he appeals to the patriotic feeling of his countrymen. "Wherefore let all noble, worshipful, and wealthy subjects put too their adventuring and helping hands, for the speedy launching and floating forward of this great and good commonwealth business, for the strengthening of his Majesty's dominions with two principal pillars, which is, with plenty of coin brought in for fish, and herrings, from other nations; and also for the increasing of mariners against all foreign invasions, and also for the bettering of trade and occupations."

"And as always it hath been seen, that those, that are now the fishermen of England, have been always found to be sufficient to serve his Majesty's ships in former time, when there has been employment; which fellows, by this new trade of building and setting-forth busses, will be greatly multiplied and increased in this land; which fellows, as we see the Hollanders, being well fed in fisher-affairs, and strong and lustier than the sailors that use the long southern voyages, that sometimes are greatly surfeited and hunger pined: But these courageous, young, lusty, strong-fed yonkers, that shall be bred in the busses, when his Majesty shall have occasion for their service in war against the enemy, will be fellows for the nonce, and will shew themselves right English, and will put more strength to an iron crow, at a piece of great ordnance in traversing of a cannon, or culvering, with the direction of the experienced master gunner, than two or three of the fore-named surfeited sailors; and in distress of wind, grown sea, and foul winter's weather, for flying forward to their labour, for pulling in a top-sail, or a sprit-sail, or shaking of a bonnet in a dark night; for wet and cold cannot make them shrink, nor stain, whom the north seas, and the busses, and pinks, have dyed in grain for such purposes."

The reiteration of statements such as these produced a powerful effect, and the formation of fishing associations, to be supported by special privileges and advantages conferred by the crown, was the policy which seems to have commended itself to English rulers from the Stuart period down to our own times. In the course of the last two centuries, a succession of companies have been started in Great Britain, and hundreds of thousands expended in the fruitless effort to bolster up a protected industry. These societies which originated with the laudable motive of stimulating and developing a neglected field of public wealth, speedily underwent the degeneracy which seems to await all attempts to make public bounty do the work of private enterprise. The only results attained, were, the crippling of individual effort, the perpetration of a series of jobs, and a waste and mis-management which appear incredible.

In 1633, Charles I ordained "An Association of the three kingdoms, for a general fishery within the hail seas." It was ordered that Lent should be more strictly observed, and the importation of fish caught by foreigners was prohibited. The association was extinguished by the disadvantageous competition which the English herrings experienced in the markets of Europe alongside those of the Dutch. In 1654, Cromwell to give protection to the fisheries, remitted the salt duties and the excise and customs on all naval necessities. In 1661, a company was formed by Charles II, the Duke of York, Lord Clarendon, and the chief nobility. Permission was given it to establish a lottery and to collect voluntary contributions in every parish. All keepers of inns, furnished hotels, and taverns, &c., were required to take one or two barrels of herrings at 30s. per barrel. In 1677, 1690, and 1720, other attempts were made through the medium of charters and joint stock companies * The reasons assigned for these repeated failures were several. The chief were the rule which made London the dearest port in the kingdom, the head quarters of the fishery, and also the superiority of the Dutch in the art. It was thus summed up 'we fish intolerably dear, and the Dutch exceedingly cheap.' In 1749, an attempt was made to give an impetus to the fishery. In pursuance of a recommendation in the speech from the throne, and of a report of a committee of the House of Commons, £500,000 was subscribed for a corporation styled 'The society of the Free British Fishery.' The Prince of Wales was chosen governor, and it was supported by the rank and fortune of the state. Government remitted the duties on the salt used in its fisheries, and a high tonnage bounty was granted upon every buss fitted out for the deep sea fishery.

Adam Smith, in his "Wealth of Nations," illustrating the injurious effect of the bounty system, dwells upon that given to the herring fishery. Many vessels were sent out not to catch herrings, but the bounty. "In the year 1759 when the bounty was at fifty shillings the ton, the whole buss fishery of Scotland brought in only four barrels of sea sticks (herrings caught and cured at sea). In that year, each barrel of sea sticks cost government in bounties alone £113 15s.; each barrel of merchantable herrings,

* These chartered companies appear to have been regarded with some jealousy by the Dutch. John de Witt in his interesting work "On the true interest of Holland," has a chapter upon them, which contains much practical wisdom. "It is certainly known that this country cannot prosper, but by means of those that are most industrious and ingenious, and that such patents or grants do not produce the ablest merchants. The grantees think that they need not fear that others who are much more ingenious than themselves, and are not of their burgerships, companies and guilds, shall lessen their profits;—therefore the certain gains they reap, make them dull, slow, inactive, and less inquisitive. Whereas on the other side, we say that Necessity makes the old wife trot; Hunger makes raw beans sweet; and Poverty begets ingenuity."

£159 7s. 6d.* To shew the absurdity of granting bounties on production, the effect of which is to tax the people of this country in order that foreign countries might be supplied with articles of consumption at prices below their actual cost, he computed that during eleven years, including the bounty and salt duty, every barrel exported of Scotch caught herrings had cost the government £1 7s. 5½d. and when entered for home consumption, £1 3s. 9½d. Upon the boat fishing along the lochs, bays, and indentations of the shores of Scotland, their most prolific and natural mode of fishing, the bounty had had a ruinous effect. The deep sea busses alone received the bounty, and as a consequence the boat fishery was unable to bring its cured fish to market upon the same terms as the buss fishery, and Adam Smith depicts it as a ruined and abandoned fishery in his day. The added bounty of 2s. 8d. per barrel on herrings for exportation, carried more than two thirds of the produce of the buss fishery abroad. As a consequence the price of herrings in the home market, which were an important article of the food of the poor, had been raised upon them. He goes on to state that in 1794, of this great society with its large capital and government subsidies, scarce a vestige remained, owing to carelessness and waste.

In 1786, a new company, patronised by George III, was started, with nearly the same fate.—“For a season or two busses were fitted out by the society, but if every herring caught had carried a ducat in its mouth, the expense of its capture would scarce have been repaid.” In 1808, an attempt was made to copy the Dutch fishery regulations. An act was passed, granting bounties and prescribing rules for the fishing, curing, inspecting, and branding herrings; a board of seven commissioners was also appointed, and districts were created for supervising the operations of the fishermen. It was renewed in 1815. In 1802, a bounty of £3 per ton was granted on vessels employed in the deep sea herring fishery, of above 60 tons burden, and in 1820, a bounty of 20s. per ton, which under specified conditions might be increased to 50s., was granted on all vessels of from 15 to 60 tons, fitted out for the shore herring fishery. In addition, a bounty of 2s. per barrel was allowed on all herrings cured, gutted, during the six years, ending April 5, 1815, and a bounty of 2s. 8d. on their exportation. During the eleven years ending April, 1826, the bounty on herrings cured and gutted was 4s. per barrel.

The impolicy of the bounty system was making itself felt. In 1821, it began to be gradually reduced, and in 1830 it ceased altogether. Whilst it would be difficult to show any benefit which the bounty system had produced, the mischief it created was patent. It had latterly flooded the fishery with individuals without capital, obtaining loans on the credit of the bounty, and

* Three barrels of Scotch sea sticks pack into two barrels of merchantable herrings.

glutting the market with fish, to the detriment of those curers who possessed capital, and converting the fishery into a gambling speculation, to which its precarious character at all times renders it injuriously liable.

Defoe, in his interesting 'Tour through Great Britain,' first published in 1724,* has described a visit he paid to Yarmouth. Every thing he witnessed seems to have excited his admiration, and he is loud in his eulogiums upon the townsmen, and their buildings, quay, shipping, and fisheries. During the century which had elapsed since Tobias Gentleman had bemoaned the decay of the fisheries, the town had made surprising progress, despite the interruption occasioned by the civil wars. We subjoin his notice of the Free Fair and herring fishery. His account of the flourishing commerce of Yarmouth has been already given in a note to page 31.

"During the Fishing-Fair, as they call it, one sees the Land covered with People, and the River with Barks and Boats, busy Day and Night, landing and carrying off the Herrings, which they catch here in almost incredible Quantities. I happened to be there during their Fishing-fair, when I told, in one Tide, One hundred and ten Barks and fishing Vessels coming up the River, all loaden with Herrings, taken the night before; and this, over and above what was brought on Shore on the Dean (that is the Sea-side of the Town) by open Boats, which they call Cobles, and which often bring in two or three Lasts of Fish at a Time. The Barks † often bring ten Lasts apiece. We have very different Accounts of the Quantity of Herrings caught here, in this Season; some have said, that the Towns of YARMOUTH and LOSTOFF only, have taken 40,000 Lasts in a Season: I will not venture to confirm that Report; but I have heard the Merchants themselves say, that they have cured 40,000 Barrels of merchantable red Herrings in one Season, which (tho' far short of the other) is a very considerable Article; and it is to be added, that these are over and above all the Herrings consumed in the Country Towns of both those populous Counties, for 30 Miles from the Sea, whither very great Quantities are carried every Tide during the whole Season "

During the present century the English and Scotch herring fisheries have grown with rapidity. Great and laudable efforts have been made by the large land owners of the north of Scotland to stimulate the prosecution of this branch of industry for the employment of their poor. The Scotch mode of pickling assimilates to that of the Dutch, and their export of herrings has very largely profited by our blockade of Holland during the long war with Napoleon, which sealing up the Dutch commerce, opened up markets which had been hitherto closed to the Scotch fish. One profitable market has lately fallen off,—the West Indian,—the negro population, to whom the Scotch herrings had been served out by their owners, as a staple article of food, evincing no great partiality for this diet now that they are free to choose their own commons. The statistics of the Scotch and Irish fisheries will be found in the last edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*.

* To the later editions of this work which we have had frequent occasion to quote, additions were made by Samuel Richardson, the celebrated novelist

† "The Barks come from the Coast of Kent and Sussex, and let themselves out to fish for the Merchants during the said Fair, as the Cobles do from the North."

The efforts of the Dutch to recover the markets for their fishery annihilated by the wars of the French revolution have proved unsuccessful. "Whilst the English fisheries" writes M. Esquiros "have marched with the stride of a giant since the day on which they were freed from the chain of bounties, the Dutch fisheries, once so famous, have remained stationery, and have even retrograded under the regime of protection. At a time when the revolution of cheapness reaches one after the other all the branches of the economic tree, a production which relies fastidiously upon its old renown is an anachronism. The Dutch herring, that patrician, jostled upon the market of exportation by the stranger of origin less noble, and of quality less delicate, but which sells at a lower price, can no longer sustain the competition. To day the Dutch herring aristocratically dear, sees itself, not disdained, but isolated; whilst England moved on, the old Netherlandish fishery paralysed under its chains of gold, the slave of its celebrity, proud of its bounties and of its privileges, has seen year by year the number of its busses decrease. Who would have said that that industry once so flourishing, that that great fishery would expire one day beneath the weight of its renown. Such is nevertheless the state of things to day. To die of glory, is scarcely for industries no more than for individuals a common destiny."*

* In Holland, the art of curing the herring has constituted down to the present day a monopoly,—it has been protected and regulated. The period for casting the nets, their length, the number of meshes, the form of the *BUZZEN* or busses, the day of departure and return, all have been decreed. The corporation of herring fishers undertook by solemn oath not to exercise their craft in the service of foreign countries. Access to boat builders was forbidden to strangers. In return, great privileges were accorded. It alone was allowed to cure the fish on board ship, and bounties withheld from other fisheries were accorded to it. It was to these precautions its reputation was partly due, and that it so long maintained a pre-eminence in all the markets of Europe.

Up to a recent date the departure of the boats for the Great Fishery was fixed for St John's day, (June 24). It was preceded by fetes. A book of old Dutch chansons exists, which the fishermen chant before their departure. Toasts were given to the success of the fishing, and the blessing of God upon the nets invoked; then the sails were loosed and the peaceful fleet set out for the conquest of the herrings. Now, the *DOGGER*s depart early in June for the north coasts of Scotland. Two ships of war accompany them for protection and surveillance. The fishermen are prohibited touching land, or from selling their fish on board. The reputation of the Dutch herrings owes somewhat to the strength of their doggers, excellent sea boats, whose construction like that of the Yarmouth Luggers, permits them to cast their nets at a distance from the land, and in the deepest waters, where are found the herrings of large size and superior quality. The moment the fish are taken, they are cured,—that is, opened with a knife, salted, and barrelled. (The Scotch remove all the viscera, the Dutch leave in the crown gut, which they believe improves the flavour.) The first hundred barrels are embarked on a steam corvette, and swiftly transported to Vlaardingen. Arrived in Holland, they are greeted with fetes and ceremonials, which at this day are but as shadows of their former interest and importance. Flags are hung out from the shops, and crowns of evergreens. The first herring captured, is always borne in a decorated car and offered in triumph to the king, who

The history of the herring fishery in the middle ages, is full of interesting illustrations of ancient customs. It entered into the matrimonial treaties of Royal houses. On the marriage of Elizabeth, daughter of our Edward I, to John I, twentieth Count of Holland, letters patent were issued, authorising the fishermen of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland, to cast their nets near to Jernemuth, *in mari nostro*. Its commerce was not confined to merchants, but shared in by kings, nobles, and church dignitaries. According to Matthew of Paris, William of Trumpington, Abbot of St. Albans, in the reign of Henry III, traded extensively in herrings; for purchasing which he had agents at the proper season at Yarmouth, where he bought, for 50 marks, a house in which to store the fish till they were sold, "to the inestimable advantage as well as honour of his abbey." Fish merchants had cause to lament the dissolution of the monasteries and expulsion of their best customers for "lenten stuff," although abstinence from flesh on Wednesdays and Fridays was enjoined by Queen Elizabeth, as well as other "fish days" expressly for the consumption of fish, and encouragement of seamen.* In 1641, the

acknowledges the present with a gift of 500 florins. There are some years still in the first days of the fishery, when the rich Hollanders offer to the fishmongers of the Hague a ducat per head, and great exertions are made by the merchants to procure the earliest arrivals. The price of the first barrels of herrings, containing 700 fish, runs at about 1400 francs.—1s. 8d. each.

The crew of a Dutch dogger consists of 11 men and 4 boys. The master of the ship receives 5 per cent, of the produce; the men have fixed wages of 5½ florins per week.—A Dutch florin or guilder, is 1s. 8d.

* This was enacted by the advice of her minister, Cecil, and by the vulgar it was generally called Cecil's Fast. Its unpopularity made it a frequent touchstone for the wit of the dramatists of that age, and frequent allusions are scattered over their plays. We quote one of the most amusing, from Ben Jonson's 'Every man in his Humour,' act 3, scene 4.

CASH. I pray thee, good Cob, what makes thee so out of love with fasting-days?

COB. Marry, that which will make any man out of love with 'em, I think; their bad conditions, an' you will needs know. First, they are of a Flemish breed, I am sure on't, for they raven up more butter than all the days of the week beside: next, they stink of fish and leek-porridge miserably: thirdly, they'll keep a man devoutly hungry all day, and at night send him supperless to bed.

CASH. Indeed these be faults, Cob,

COB. Nay, an' this were all, 'twere something; but they are the only known enemies to my generation. A fasting-day no sooner comes, but my lineage goes to wrack, poor Cobs, they smook for it, they are made martyrs o' the gridiron, they melt in passion: and your malds too know this, and yet would have me turn Hannibal, and eat my own flesh and blood.

[HE PULLS OUT A RED HERRING.

My princely couz, fear nothing; I have not the heart to devour you, an' I might be made as rich as king Cophetua. O that I had room for my tears, I could weep salt-water enough now to preserve the lives of ten thousand thousand of my kin. But I may curse none but these filthy almanacks; for an't were not for them, these days of persecution would ne'er be known. I'll be hang'd an' some fishmonger's son do not make of 'em, and puts in more fasting days than he should do, because he would utter his father's dried stock-fish and stinking conger."

town prayed Parliament to enforce a better observance of fish days, and again in 1664, "to have Lent for the time to come strictly kept and observed."* A favourite toast of the Yarmouth and Lowestoft fishermen, was—

"Here's to his Holiness, the Pope, with his triple crown,
With nine dollars each, for each cask in the town."

Grants of fish were sometimes made in perpetuity. In 1362, the corporation made a grant of a last of red herrings, to be delivered yearly on St. Andrew's day, "to the custos and collegians of the free chapel of St. George at Windsor, that the college might take the corporation into their prayers." After the grant had continued for several centuries, it was commuted for a money payment of £8, still received by the Dean and Chapter of Windsor.

Before the Reformation, it was usual for the priests "to give a blessing to the fishing, yearly," and before the commencement of every fishing, a "fishing sermon" was also preached. A fishing dole, called "Christ's half dole" was paid to the churches of Yarmouth and Lowestoft, in lieu of the tithe of fish to which the ministers were entitled. In the reign of Edward III this produced at Yarmouth as much as £466 yearly.

The great importance of the Fishery as a nursery of seamen, has been strongly felt amongst all maritime nations, and encouraged by various favours and bounties, still continued in France. "Men of war and merchantmen" wrote Roger Le Strange, "consume men, and breed none; the collier brings up now and then an apprentice, but still spends more than he makes; the only and common nursery of seamen is this fishery, where every buss brings up (it may be) six, eight, or ten new men every year, so that our fishery is just as necessary to our navigation, as to our safety and well-being."

The herring has always been found on the Norfolk coast, and in great abundance. "On no coast" writes Nashe,—

"On no coast, like ours, is it caught in such abundance, no where dressed in his right cue but under our horizon; hosted, roasted, and toasted here alone it is, and as well powdered and salted as any Dutchman would desire. If you articulate with me of the gain or profit of it, without the which, the new fangled rarity, that no body can boast of but ourselves. after three day's gazing, is reversed over to children for babies to play with: behold, it is every man's money from the King to the courtier; every housholder, or Goodman Baltrop, that keeps a family in pay, casts for it as one of his standing provisions. The poorer sort make it three parts of their sustenance: with it, for his dinner, the patchedest LEATHER PILCHE LABORATHO may dine like a Spanish Duke, when the niggardly mouse of beef will cost him sixpence. In the craft of catching, or taking, and smudging it, merchant and chapmanable as it should be, it sets a work thousands, who live all the rest of the year gally well, by what, in some few weeks they scratch up then, and come to bear office of questman and scavenger in the parish where they dwell; which they could never have done, but would have begged or starved, with their wives and brats,

* Formerly, in many parts of the kingdom, in the Shrove Tuesday procession, was a man called Lenton, to represent Lent, clad in white and red herring skins, and his horse had trappings of oyster shells.

had not this captain of the squamy cattle so stood their good lord and master : carpenters, shipwrights, makers of lines, ropes and cables, dressers of hemp, spinners of thread, and net-weavers it gives their handfults to, sets up so many salthouses to make salt, and salt upon salt ; keeps in earnings the cooper, the brewer, the baker, and numbers of other people, to gill, wash, and pack it, and carry it and recarry it.

In exchange for it from other countries, they return wine and woads, for which is always paid ready gold, with salt, canuas, vitre, and a great deal of good trash Her Majesty's tributes and customs, this *SEMPER AUGUSTUS* of the sea's finny freeholders, augmenteth and enlargeth unaccountably, and, to the increase of navigation, for her service, he is no enemy.

Voyages of purchase or reprisals, which are now grown a common traffick, swallow up and consume more sailors and mariners than they breed, and lightly not a sloop of a rope-haler they send forth to the Queen's ships, but he is first broken to the sea in the herring man's skiff or cock-boat, where, having learned to brook all waters, and drink as he can out of a tarry can, and eat poor John out of smutty platters when he may get it, without butter or mustard, there is no ho with him, but, once heartened thus, he will needs be a man of war, or a tobacco-taker, and wear a silver whistle Some of these, for their haughty climbing, come home with wooden legs, and some with none, but leave body and all behind ; those, that escape to bring news, tell of nothing but eating tallow and young blackamoors, of five and five to a rat in every mess, and the ship-boy to the tail ; of stopping their noses when they drunk stinking water that came out of the pump of the ship, and cutting a greasy buff jerkin in tripes, and broiling it for their dinners. Divers Indian adventures have been seasoned with dlrer mishaps, not having, for eight days space, the quantity of a candles'-end amoungt eight score to grease their lips with."

Natural History of the Herring.

The term herring, is derived from the German word *Heer*, an army, in reference to its vast numbers, and gregarious propensities. Two distinct species are classed under the genus *clupea* of Linnæus, our *clupea harengus*, the herring of commerce, and *clupea leachis*, named after the discoverer of its distinctive features, the naturalist Leach. From its close alliance with the genus *salmo*, it has been included in the same natural family by Agassiz, the principal difference consisting in the absence of the small adipose dorsal fin in the *clupea*. Up to the present time its haunts and migrations have been matters of dispute among writers of Natural History. Yarrell* in his "*British Fishes*," denies the theory of Anderson and Pennant, that they winter in the Arctic circle, moving downwards in the spring, instancing the fact of their never having been noticed there in any great numbers. He adds "there can be no doubt that the herring inhabits the deep water all round our coast, and only approaches the shores for the purpose of depositing its spawn within the immediate influence of the two principal agents in vivifaction,—increased temperature, and oxygen ; and as soon as that essential operation is effected, the shoals that haunt our coast disappear, but individuals are to be found, and many are caught throughout the year." This theory

* Mr. Yarrell, one of the most celebrated of modern British Naturalists, died in Yarmouth, September 1, 1856, from an attack of paralysis.

is now we believe universally admitted, and its annual migration from the inaccessible seas of the high latitudes in vast shoals, exploded as a fiction, it having been proved beyond doubt that the *clupea harengus* is as local to particular coasts as the salmon is to particular rivers.* Manship was not far out when in 1619 he wrote of the Yarmouth coast as follows,—“Yea, it is supposed by ancient experienced fishermen, that great sculls (or shoals as some call them) of herrings do swim the whole year thereabouts; which in our grandfathers’ days kept their station in the summer season (at which time they be very fat and best liking) about Norway, but now, by the mercy of God, are lately come to Yarmouth: which have caused the fishermen to prepare themselves to the seas (of late more timely than heretofore they have done) yearly about Midsummer.”†

The herring can be caught all the year round on the coasts of the three kingdoms. It begins at the Hebrides in May, at Caithness in July, and in the Frith of Forth in the winter months. The herring which formerly appeared on the Norfolk coast the last week in September, has for some years past arrived earlier for the purpose of spawning, and it is then in the best condition for food. The reason that the fishery commences so much sooner in the North, is not that the fish migrate southwards as is frequently supposed, but because the winter setting in much earlier there, the fish which merely come up from the depths of the adjacent sea, approach the shores to spawn earlier.‡ The Yarmouth herring has

* The varieties of herring local to particular coasts have not as yet been minutely investigated and determined. The herring caught off the Yarmouth coast, differs both in size and condition from those taken off the shores of Yorkshire and of Scotland. M. De Valenciennes, whose chapters upon the Herring, which appear in the great work of Cuvier, form the most important contribution to its Natural History, writes on this head:—“Our Paris markets are provisioned with herrings taken in La Manche, (the French name for the English Channel,) and forwarded principally from the ports of Dieppe and Calais. Each of these ports unites the fisheries of the ocean basins which environ them. It is clear that these basins have each their particular varieties of herrings, for the buyers can readily distinguish by their appearance the place of capture. It is not difficult to recognise the herring of Calais, which has the body long and flattened or compressed on the sides, and to distinguish the herring of Dieppe, which is more rounded and squat. There is one important remark to make,—and that is, that in the northern seas as far up as the White Sea, all the individuals have an invariable bulk superior to that of our herrings, whose small dimensions are equally uniform. Is not this fact one of the strongest negative proofs to oppose to the theory of the migration of herrings?”

† The food of the herring has given rise to much discussion. The extreme rapidity of their digestion has baffled superficial observers. Fish eggs, small fish and crustacea have been found in their stomachs. A species of the latter, abundant on the coast of Norway, is eagerly sought by the herring.

‡ Mr. Wilson in his article in the last edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, on Fisheries, after devoting “more scotico,” many pages to the glorification of the Scotch Fisheries, dismisses those of Yarmouth in a note of three disparaging lines. From his description of the smoking of herrings, we extract the following:—

less oil than the Scotch one, and is unrivalled in point of quality. After spawning the fish are termed "shotten" and lose considerably both in flavour and wholesomeness.

On the spawn and growth of the herring, there is much uncertainty and dispute. Some assert the herring spawns twice a year, in October and March; others that the herrings of different localities are distinct races, and that spawning is taking place almost every month, according to the different latitudes.

By some naturalists it is contended that the sprat (*Clupea sprattus*) is in reality the young of the herring, adducing the fact that the sprat is rarely found with either milt or roe, and by these writers, the wholesale killing of sprats which is annually carried on, even to the extent of selling them for manure, is loudly denounced.*

Buffon has stated that the produce of a male and female herring, if allowed to multiply without check, would in time produce a

"Yarmouth bloaters are among the best of things, but our southern neighbours labour under this great disadvantage, that their fishery is chiefly a winter one, when herrings are seldom in prime condition, while along our north-eastern shores they are caught in the months of July and August, when these fish are in perfection. The cure may be good, but the southerners have not the same article to begin with. To use Mr. Thomson's illustration, a Holstein or Yorkshire ham may have every attribute of excellence in the cure, but as the animal has not lived in the woods of Westphalia, so its flesh has not the sweetness and flavour imparted by the acorn."

There is a flavour of 'the whole hog' in this paragraph of Mr. Wilson's, palpable and undisguised. It is not true to describe the Yarmouth fishery as a winter one. It is not true that the herrings are seldom in prime condition. The plump Yarmouth bloater caught in the month of October off the coast of Norfolk, is in a condition and has a delicacy of flavour, to which the large coarse Scotch herring taken in July and August, has about as much resemblance as a Cochin-China has to an ortolan. Mr. Wilson's citation of Mr. Thomson's illustration illustrates nothing in this instance but the disingenuous use to which such things can be put.

* This is a complaint of long standing. Mr. Tobias Gentleman writing in 1613, thus inveighs against their capture:—

"I will make known a great abuse that is offered to the commonwealth, and especially to all the herring fishermen of England, only by those men of Colchester water.—For these men from St. Andrew until Candlemas, and sometimes longer, do set forth stall boats, &c., to take sprats, but instead they take young herrings, and sell them in Billingsgate for sprats, which if they would let live, would make a fat Midsummer herring; and for every cart load of sprats they do take 100 cart loads of these young herrings, which are the very spawn of the herrings that come from Scotland every summer, and when as they come to Yarmouth seas, yearly about St. Luke, if it blow a hard easterly wind, do always become rope-sick and do spawn, and those fry of that spawn, those little young creatures, by the wisdom of the Great Creator, seek into the shore and shallow places there to be nourished, and also into the Thames mouth into the sweetest waters; for the waters nigh the shore, and in the Thames mouth, is not so brine salt as it is further off into the deep water, where the bleaks yearly seeking to be nourished, they are always at that season taken and destroyed; but if men will use their stall boats and nets, let them go where good sprats be. And for the good of all the fishermen of England, I wrote that they might be prohibited to sell that which is not wholesome to be eaten, which is as much as to sell hemlock for parsnips."

bulk of fish greater than twenty of our globes. But for this providentially exuberant fruitfulness, so enormous is the waste and consumption, that this, the most productive of all fisheries, would have been long since in danger of extinction. As it is, in consequence of the fluctuations of recent years, the note of alarm has been sounded that this fishery is threatened with decay, without however any explanations being advanced which will bear the scrutiny of scientific investigation. Some have alleged the cause to lie in the quantity of netting now used, compared with what was required thirty years ago. Then a man could carry the train of nets required on his shoulder, now it fills a waggon, and nine times the netting is used to capture fewer fish.

A point of extreme interest in the natural history of the herring, is that of its reported instantaneous death when taken from the water, a statement which has gained such credence as to form a stock phrase in almost every account of the herring fishery. "As dead as a herring,"* is a well known English proverb. Even M. De Lacépède strives to explain it by lengthy physiological considerations,† It is nevertheless certain that the life of the herring, though less tenacious than that of the eel, flat fish, and others, is prolonged much more than is commonly believed, and it would be difficult to upset the conclusive evidence which M. De Valenciennes collected, in addition to his own investigations, to disprove the popular error. This error has arisen from the mode in which the fish are captured, the nets not enclosing them, but forming a wall in the sea, against which the shoal of herrings drive their heads, and caught by their gills in the meshes, are literally strangled, and hang in the water *sus per coll.* Great numbers are in consequence drawn out of the water already dead.‡

* See also Shakspeare's *Merry Wives of Windsor*,—Dr. Caius—"By gar! de herring is no dead, so as I vill kill him."

† The blood of fishes is exposed to the influence of water by means of an almost infinite subdivision of vessels on the surface of the branchial leaves, (gills,) the water passing incessantly through the gills by means of the jaws. It is not by means of the water, nor yet of the oxygen contained in it, but by the small quantity of air mixed with and held in solution in the water, that their respiration is carried on. Fish perish when exposed out of water, not so much for want of oxygen, as because their BRANCHIÆ (gills) become dry, and the blood cannot circulate with sufficient freedom. Hence the species whose branchial openings are small, as the eel, remain alive longer in the air than those whose gills are very open, like the herring, who expire at the instant they are drawn out of the water. * * The gills of the herring are very much cleft * * of all fishes they have the most numerous and the finest bones.—LACEPÈDE.

‡ Among the array of witnesses he quotes, are M. Neucrantz, who watched a herring live for more than an hour after it had been placed without extra care, upon a conveyance with other fish.—Sagard, a Canadian missionary, who noticed herrings leap upon the deck when taken from the nets, and continue doing so for a considerable time.—Noel de la Morinière, Inspector of the Fish Markets of Rouen, writes that he has seen herrings live two or three hours out of the water, and that he has held them in his hands, when they lived for upwards of half an hour. He relates also a variety of experiments he made to demonstrate their tenacity of life—cutting off their fins and otherwise mutilating them.

others are stifled on deck and in the hold by the superincumbent mass of captured fish. The herrings are drowned in the meshes, their convulsive struggles working the lint into their gills, and the water rushing in depriving them of air. If the herring slips its head through the mesh, it will remain alive many hours in the net; and, as sometimes happens, when the herring strikes the lower end of the net, whilst the upper is being hauled in, the bulk of the catch is brought on board alive, flapping energetically on deck and in the hold.

Characteristics of the Herring.—Soft-finned, abdominal, of the bony or spinous class, having a serrated membrane of eight rays covering the gills and a scaly carinated line running along the belly. It has seven fins, one dorsal, placed behind the centre of gravity, two ventrals, one anal, two pectorals, rather large, and the tail or caudal fin, large, strongly forked—"a powerful oar," as remarked by Lapepède. The eye is large, the iris of a silvery white, the pupil black. The spine, or backbone, has fifty-six vertebrae; on each side the belly are about thirty-six bones or ribs, and next the tail are several minute bones, terminating in soft elastic muscles at that fin. Fifty-two bones have been counted as composing the head. The herring has four gills, or branchiae, on each side, each supported by an arched cartilage, besides these there are two smaller less perfect gills; these join the gill cover and seem to regulate its movement. These gills have the same functions as the lungs of other animals. The air contained in the water required for the fish's support is furnished by the gills, the water entering the mouth meets the gills, which receive the needed oxygen, and the gill-opening allows the remaining water to escape. The gullet is unusually small in proportion to the size of the fish; the stomach thin and membranous, is capable of great distention; the gut of uniform size throughout. The air bag, which by contraction or expansion enables it to rise or sink, is of a silvery white colour, round, of near the length of the stomach, narrowed at the ends, connected with the hind part of the stomach, which is funnel-shaped, by a duct, which lies in the female between the roes, and in the males between the milts. It has two nostrils used in the selection of food, its nose supplying the absence of cirri or feelers, as possessed by some other fishes. The lower jaw is longer than the upper, with five or six small teeth extending in a line backward on each side; four rows of small teeth in the central upper surface of the tongue; and a few small teeth on the central part of the upper jaw.

The herring has no external organs of hearing, but a fringed opening appears below the eye on the inner side of that part of the head which covers the gills, and fishermen credit it with the sense of hearing.

The colour of the live herring is a fine bluish green tint upon

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the back, shot with white, its sides and belly white, shining with a brilliant metallic lustre, the scales having a lustrous golden or orange tinge of great beauty, and the tapering of the body at the tail is of a fine dark green when held before the light. When dead, the herring changes colour, its back assumes a blue tinge, which is that commonly assigned to it by those who have not seen it shaken out of the fishermen's nets. Its cheeks and gill-covers are silvery, exhibiting when the fish has been dead for twenty-four hours a bloodshot appearance.

The careful investigations of modern naturalists have cleared up much of the uncertainty which prevailed on the spawning of the herring. It is a conjoint operation of male and female; the former has two milts, oblong and of a whitish tint; the female two roes of a somewhat darker tint. Gravel beds, stiff clay, or rocky ground are the chosen sites to which the herring resorts to deposit its spawn. The female having first ejected the whole of its roe, it is afterwards impregnated by the ejection of the milt of the male. This last has previously ripened from a solid mass into a fluid, which leavening the roe fecundates it, rendering it a firm united mass, imbued with a great power of adhesion. Grasping firmly to stones, rocks, seaweed, &c., the dawning life of the young progeny is protected from storms and currents, shielded in some degree from the voracity of fish, and probably firmly fixed in a suitable feeding ground.

The dead bodies of herring and mackerel when exposed to the air for a short time become luminous in the dark. If the finger be then passed over them it becomes coated with an oily substance, rendering it luminous as if rubbed in phosphorus. Examined under a microscope no vestige of infusoria or animalcules can be traced in this substance, nor can any phosphorus be found in it. Its luminosity which has sometimes been ascribed to the presence of microscopic fungi appears owing to some peculiar organic matter, possessing the property of showing in the dark like phosphorus itself. Dead herrings if placed in sea water render it luminous in the course of a few days. It loses its transparency, becomes milky, acquires a repulsive odour, and gradually ceases to be luminous. That unlike the sea, this phosphorescence is not derived from animalcules is shewn by the uniform and equal intensity of the luminosity of the sea, which if passed through a filter, continues to shine as before. Placed in pure water the dead fish soon lose their phosphorescence, and cold weather diminishes its intensity.*

* Dr. Phipson, on Phosphorescence, 1862.

Dr. Hume has shewn that the light of the herring and mackerel begin to appear whilst the fish is still eatable, and soon arrives at its maximum, decreasing as they pass to putridity. To produce this change they should be kept in a cool place. It is not confined to the skin of the animal, for if cut into

For the remarkable fluctuations which attend the herring fishery, no satisfactory solution has been hitherto found.* Possibly

The sea like the earth
Has its seasons of plenty—
Its seasons of dearth.

Some years the herring has appeared in prodigious shoals upon our coast, and driven onward by the united action of rough winds and waves, or harried by its numerous foes, has stranded the beach line of the promontories a depth of several feet for many miles, with uncounted millions. To garner up a mere fraction of the bulk has exhausted the most strenuous exertions of the whole population turning out *en masse* with all their available supply of barrels, salt, boats, and vehicles of every description. "Herring har'ists" like these, occurring at rare intervals, have impressed themselves with the force of almost miraculous events upon the imaginations of the fishing-people; have formed the great epochs in their lives, and furnished the central data from which backwards and forwards, their 'short and simple annals' have been roughly computed. At other times the capricious fish without apparent 'rhyme or reason' has quitted its accustomed resorts for a number of years, creating dismay and impoverishment in wide-spread localities. Marvellous are the conjectured causes which these sudden disappearances have given rise to, as embodied in the oral and legendary lore of Scandinavia and the North of Scotland.†

Considering the immense economic value of the herring, it is surprising how slight has been our actual knowledge hitherto of its habits, peculiarities, and migrations. Hardly any other branch of English Natural History has continued in so unsatisfactory a condition down to the present day, or been made the subject of so many baseless theories adopted without investigation, and propagated without the slightest scrutiny in successive publications.

Our ignorance upon this subject has been a national discredit to pieces the surface of each piece becomes luminous, and it is often seen within the mouth of the fish. The luminous matter is attended by no perceptible heat. When scraped off it forms a gelatinous liquid that will shine for several days if preserved in a phial. Lime water, vegetable acids and alkalies, neutral salts, pepper, and camphor, when strong, extinguish it, but weak solutions seem to promote it, and even to render it more durable. Sea water increases its splendour.

* A theory recently started is quoted in the last edition of the *Ency. Brit.*, vol. xvii.—"The herring also visits our coasts in winter—its migration being very definitely limited to water of a certain precise temperature; a circumstance which, taken in conjunction with the fluctuations known to exist from year to year in the limits of the Gulf Stream and the surface drift currents from the S.W., may serve to explain the seemingly capricious desertion of certain bays and haunts of these fish in some years, and their appearance in others, not previously frequented by them."

† See appendix.

us. France has long been alive to the value of this fishery. The reports of its official inspectors and the writings of its most eminent naturalists, are at present our most valuable sources of information. Holland is striving to obtain a more accurate knowledge of the natural history of the herring for the benefit of its fishermen. Its fishing fleets have been latterly furnished with instructions and log-books for a series of observations to be ultimately worked out into a Herring Chart. In England public attention has at last woke up, and investigations have been undertaken at the instance of Government Boards and of the British Association, to elicit more accurate information upon the habits of the herring, its spawning, development, and growth.

The Report issued, March, 1863, by the Royal Commissioners, Professors Playfair and Huxley, and Col. Maxwell, on the operation of the Acts relating to herring trawling on the coasts of Scotland, contains statements on the Natural History of the Herring, of the highest value and interest, summarised from their personal investigations and the voluminous evidence of the fishermen, curers, and landowners of our northern shores. We condense the most important of their conclusions.

The herring is found under four different conditions: *Fry or Sill*; *Maties or Fat Herring*; *Full Herring*; *Shotten or Spent Herring*. The first term is applicable to all herring not larger than sprats, under five or six inches in length. The milt and roe in fish of this size are so small as to be discoverable only by careful dissection. The fry pass imperceptibly into *Maties*, in length from six inches to thirteen, the usual extreme length of the British herring. Internally, a matie is characterised by two peculiarities—the quantity of fat deposited about the alimentary canal, and the small size of the roe or milt.

A *Full Herring* has the milt or roe developed, filling the whole abdominal cavity, except the small space occupied by the intestine; while the fat has disappeared, having, in all probability, been applied to the nutrition of the reproductive organs. When the herring first arrives at the full state, the roe or milt is firm and hard. It rapidly becomes softer, acquiring a semi-fluid consistency. It would seem as if all the superfluous nourishment in the body of the herring were applied to supply the rapid increase of the reproductive organs; for *shotten*, or *spent herrings*, so called because their roe and milt are completely emptied of their contents, not only have no fat about their intestines, but even their muscular substance is almost devoid of fat; and is consequently harsh, dry, and insipid when cooked.

It is difficult to determine the period of the growth of the herring, and the opinions given by fishermen to the Commissioners were very conflicting. Their convictions incline with Mr. Yarrell to the belief that the herring arrives at its full size and

maturity in about eighteen months. There seems to be no good evidence against the supposition that it reaches its spawning condition in a year. Its ova are probably hatched within two or three weeks after deposition, and in six or seven weeks more the fry have attained three inches in length. Arguing from the growth of the smolt, which feeds on similar food, nine months would be ample time for it to enlarge from three to ten or eleven inches in length, and to reach maturity within eighteen.

The large shoals of herrings which swarm on our coasts in the early summer and the late autumn, and which appear to come from deeper into shallower water, are at first either entirely composed of maties, or contain a very large proportion of them. The maties feed, develop their reproductive organs, and become full herring in the course of three or four months, the full herring appearing at first only scattered here and there among the shoals, gradually increasing until they largely preponderate. On the Scotch coast the herrings there for about a fortnight aggregate in most prodigious numbers, lying close to the ground in tiers which cover square miles of sea bottom, busily engaged in spawning. This object once attained, and they have become *spent fish*, the shoal rapidly disappears, withdrawing, according to the universal belief of fishermen, into deep water at no great distance from the coast. Of the manner in which the change from the *spent* to the second *full* state is effected we know nothing, nor how many times the herring may run through the cycle.

The Commissioners, reasoning from a large body of evidence, "have come to the clear conviction" that the herring spawns at two seasons of the year, spring and autumn. Not that the same fish spawns twice in one year; on the contrary, the shoals of each season are probably perfectly distinct; and if the herring, as supposed above, comes to maturity in a year, the shoals of each spawning season would be the fry of the twelvemonth before.

The food of the herring consists of crustacea, varying in size from microscopic dimensions to those of a shrimp; and of small fish, particularly sand eels. While in the matie condition they feed voraciously, and not unfrequently their stomachs are found immensely distended with crustacea and sand eels, in a more or less digested condition. Herrings thus abundantly fed are apt to have all their tissues so permeated with fat that they will not cure well, and their flesh is liable to break when handled. The Scotch fishermen style such as these "gut-pock" herrings, and consider them of very inferior quality.

The investigation by the Commissioners of the grounds of alarm for apprehending an approaching exhaustion of our sources of supply, reveals to us the almost inconceivable importance of the function exercised by the herring in the economy of the animal kingdom. They record the take of

herrings in the Scotch fisheries of 1861, as registered at nearly 900 millions. The total annual European catch may be computed from the statistics adduced in our appendix at from four to five thousand millions. These numbers, vast as they are, seem insignificant compared with the destruction effected by other agencies. "It is very common to find a cod fish with six or seven herrings still undigested in the stomach. If we allow a cod fish only two herrings a day, and estimate that he feeds on herrings for only seven months in the year, he takes 420 as his allowance during that time. The number of cod and ling taken in the Scotch fisheries of 1861, was very nearly 2,400,000." Mr. Laing, in his '*Residence in Norway*' states that in 1827, a medium year, the produce of the Norwegian cod and ling fishery was 16,456,620 fish. Add to these figures the millions taken in the large American fisheries and in those of England, Ireland, Denmark, Holland, &c., and the cod and ling caught were certainly not a tithe of those left behind, and the destruction of herring by these voracious fish alone may be faintly estimated. But the conger and the myriads of insatiable dog fish probably do as much mischief as the cod and ling; the gulls and the gannets, slay, it has been computed their hundreds of millions; the porpoises and grampuses destroy untold multitudes; sea trouts, and innumerable other fish prey upon the herring fry; flat fish of all kinds resort in immense numbers to the spawning grounds of the herring to prey upon its freshly deposited ova. Extensive as are our fishery operations, their effect upon the supply of herrings becomes inappreciable when compared with all these consuming agencies. They probably do not affect 5 per cent. of the total destruction of maties and full herring that takes place every year.

The practical result arrived at by the Commissioners is, that a plentiful multiplication of herrings in any year nourishes and supports an increased army of enemies, and if these latter multiply too fast the herrings become diminished in number, whereupon the fish that destroy them are starved down, and, in a weakened state more easily fall a prey to their own enemies; the herring, then relieved from their oppressors, in a year or two appear again in immense numbers, and so the alternations of prosperity, overproduction, and panic in the trade which they originate, will occur with as much regularity as if the herring were manufacturers.

But few fish die a natural death. A painful contemplation of this interminable scene of carnage is however mitigated by the knowledge that the peculiar organization of fishes exempts them from the pangs of creatures of higher nervous structure. From the rigid nature of their scaly covering they seem to possess but little external sense of touch. Wounds in fish heal rapidly, and they appear to have but few diseases owing to the uniformity of the temperature in the medium in which they reside.

Early Regulations of the Yarmouth Fisheries.

The early regulations of the herring fishery in Yarmouth are interesting, as reflecting the popular opposition to regrating and forestalling. To the freedom which the fishermen of all countries originally enjoyed of taking their catch of herrings to the Free Fair, and of disposing of them unfettered to a concourse of buyers gathered from all parts, the rapid growth of Yarmouth may be ascribed. Abuses sprang up, and in course of time an oppressive interference in regulating prices, which caused the fair to dwindle down, and inflicted serious injury on the town.

The fishermen seem to have intrusted the sale to the 'hosts,' or parties with whom they lodged, and frequent disputes arose from these brokers retaining too large a share of the profits. It was to remedy this that in 1357 the *Statute of Herrings* 31, Edw. III, stat. 2, c. 2, was passed. It recited that the people of Yarmouth "did encounter the fishers bringing herrings to the said town, in the time of the fair, and did buy and forestall the herring before they came to the town," also that the hostellers of the same town, who lodge the fishers coming thither with their herring, will not suffer the said fishers to sell their said herring, nor meddle with the sale thereof, but sell them at their own will, as dear as they will, and give to the fishers that which pleaseth them, whereby the fishers do withdraw themselves to come thither, and so is the herring sold at much greater price than ever it was, to the great damage of our lord the king, of the lords, and of all the people. It went on to enact "that no herring be bought or sold in the sea," and "that the fishers be free to sell their herring without any disturbance of their hostellers or any other, all sales to be between sun rising and sun setting. The fishers to buy their victuals where it shall please them. No hostellers nor other, to buy any for to hang in their houses by covin, nor in any other manner, at a higher price the last, than 40s. but less in as much as he may, according as he may agree with the seller. The hundred of herring was to be accounted by six score, and the last by ten thousand. Two lasts of shotten herring fresh to be sold for the price of the buying of a last of full herring."

Hostellers were to be sworn before the wardens of the fair to receive their guests well and conveniently, taking for every last of fish sold to other merchants than to the said hostellers, 40d., and for those sold to the said hostellers to hang in their houses, they shall take nothing. That the people of Yarmouth sell the last of red herrings at half a mark gain,* and no more, and the people of

* A mark was 13s. 4d.

London at such fair, shall bring the last from Yarmouth to London for one mark of gain and not above.*

In the same year came out a commission against forestallers,—in which the hostellers of Yarmouth were charged with “not revering the statute,” and with manifestly threatening foreign merchants with life and limbs, so much that they to the aforesaid fair and town, for the sake of merchandizing, have not dared to come, or to stay there. An inquisition was appointed to be held.

In 1359, an order was made by the king strictly enforcing the provisions previously enacted, and prohibiting buyers to go in boats to induce fishers to sell their herrings. And that those vessels called pycards buy no herring in the sea, nor upon the coasts, but only in the haven, and in the road of Kirkly.

A.D., 1360-1, 35 Edw. III., ‘*An Ordinance of Herring*’ appeared, designed to remedy inconveniences which had arisen from the previous Statute. It recites that the sale of Herring is much decayed, and the people endangered by some of the restrictions contained therein; “that is to say, that many Merchants coming to the Fair, as well Labourers and Servants, as other, do bargain for Herring, and every of them by malice and envy increase upon other, and if one proffer forty shilling, another will proffer ten shilling more, and the third sixty shillings, and so every one surmounteth other in the bargain, and such proffers extend to more than the price of the Herring upon which the fishers proffered it to sell at the beginning. And when every man claimeth his part of the Herring, for the price accorded, he shall have his part, and the Herring shall be so divided amongst them, that the Fisher is so much grieved and delayed in the gathering of his money of so many persons, that he loseth his tides and the advantage of his fishing. And also herein, that no fresh Herring is put up for sale but from sun-rising to sunset, and not before nor after, which is to the great loss of fishers as well as of buyers, for the fishing is more by night than by day, and often it chanceth that the fishers be so distant and so laden, that they come to town after sun going down, and must then abide all the night and day after for the sale of their Herring. We, perceiving the mischief and grievances aforesaid, will and grant that it shall be lawful to every man of what condition he be, to buy Herring openly, and not privily, at such price as may be agreed on, and that no man interrupt another in a bargain nor bid upon him “on payment of forfeiture to

* At the same time an Ordinance was passed to regulate the sale of salt fish at Blakeney Fair, Norfolk. To remedy the excessive price of the Lob, Ling and Cod sold thereat, a price was to be fixed at the beginning, and no fish was to be held back, to sell again another time by retail, “and that no man buy Nets, Hooks, nor any other Instruments pertaining to fishing in Norfolk; but Owners, Masters and Mariners of Ships that use the Mystery of Fishing” on pain of imprisonment. Six men to be always present at the delivery of the fish from Ship Masters to the Merchants.

us the double of his proffer." "And that every Fisher may deliver and sell his Herring and Fish at every tide when he cometh to the said town of Great Yarmouth, without disturbance or impeachment."

A.D. 1482-3, 22, Edw. IV, c. 1 & 2, after strictly laying down what kind of apparel men of every degree and estate are to be allowed or prohibited to wear, proceeds in the next clause to regulate the packing of fish. "No barrel of herrings to contain less than 32 gallons, to be well, truly, and justly laid and packed, of one taking and salting, the same herring to be as good and as well packed in the midst and in every part as it shall be in the ends of the same barrels, upon pain to forfeit three shillings and fourpence for every barrel failing the said measure, and the same amount for every barrel sorted, laid, and packed contrary to this act." A.D. 1571, 13, Eliz., c. 11, recites—"Be it enacted that the said assize of 32 gallons of wine measure which is about 28 gallons by old standard, well packed and containing in every barrel usually a thousand full herrings at the least, is and shall be taken for good, true and lawful assize of herring barrels throughout the whole liberty of the said town of Great Yarmouth, and elsewhere." A.D. 1663, 15, Car. II., c. 16. To prevent abuses in packing herrings, and to bring the commodity into credit in foreign parts beyond the seas,—the bailiffs of Great Yarmouth were required, before the first of July, in every year to appoint experienced Packers to view and pack all white and red herrings brought into their Haven, and to brand the barrels.

Many minor regulations of a similar kind were made from time to time by the crown, all shewing the great importance attached to this fishery by the nation.

In the seventeenth century, the Corporation sought to engross the sale of all herrings brought to the town, and to confine the catch to boats belonging to Yarmouth, and also procured from Charles II an Act of Parliament, prohibiting the sale of herrings by the Dutch and French. These ceased to frequent the Fair, and the town lost the benefit of their expenditure. They proceeded to still more oppressive measures. It was ordered that all boats not belonging to the town, should sell their fish to none but freemen, and only at 'tide price,' that at which the first boat load was sold. This was to rule for the next twelve hours. Each boat's produce was to be sold to only one merchant, and the corporation claimed a right of pre-emption at the 'tide price' of half the quantity of all herrings brought in, and of re-selling the same at market price, the profit in the difference of price accruing to their revenue, under the name of 'heyning money.'* They leagued together with

* In 1667 the inhabitants sought to obtain an Act for the repair of the Haven and Pier, with provisions which should compel Norwich to contribute towards the cost. The Norwich traders opposed the bill, alleging that Yarmouth was well able to bear the charges, and cited among its other revenues, "a certain duty called hayning-money, worth £800 per annum."

the limited body of freemen to keep down the 'tide price,' and enhance the market value. As a result of this policy but few boats came to fish, and the buyers were still more limited in number, and obtained their catch greatly below its actual value. In one year the corporation netted £2000, but the fishermen deserted the town for other ports. It was not until 1709, that this injurious monopoly was broken down by the resistance of eight merchants of the town, who insisted "on giving a price for the fish higher than that ruled by the corporation. For this they were fined, and ordered to be disfranchised until the fines were paid. All submitted, with the exception of Mr. Andrews, an alderman, who was expelled the corporation.* A bill was filed against him in the court of Exchequer to recover the difference in price, when the corporation ordinances were held to be illegal, and had to be abandoned, and the upholding by the court of a statute of 1697, declaring it to be unlawful to set the price, or to make any restraint or demand, or to take any toll upon any sea fish brought into the realm by any British subject" put an end to all further interference in the freedom of the Yarmouth fishery.

During the middle ages and down to a period not very remote, whilst the use of flesh meat was comparatively confined to the more opulent, the fast days of the church strictly observed, and salt food was the staple commissariat of fleets and armies, a store of salt fish was a necessity in every household. The great Fish Fairs of England were primarily the Yarmouth Free Fair, with next in magnitude those of Stourbridge, St. Ives, and Ely.†

* See Note, page 43.

† A.D. 1533-4, 25, Hen. VIII, c. 4.—AN ACT AGAINST FORESTALLING AND REGRATING OF FISH.—After reciting that former statutes had failed, not only for lack of due execution, but for lack of condign punishment, adds:—"Divers and many of the King's subjects regarding nothing the displeasure of Almighty God and of the King's Highness, forestall all manner of victual in every market and fair within this realm, specially in the fairs of Sturbridge, St. Ives, and Ely, being the most notable fairs within this realm for the provision of fish, resorting shortly before the said fairs to the East sea side, and there buy upon the stone all manner of fish that is taken in the said East sea, and incontinently reparing to the said fairs they sell again the said fish at their own price and pleasure, and also buy up all manner of fish brought by other persons, so that the King's subjects be driven to buy all such fish as to them is requisite and necessary, at the second, third, or fourth hand, by reason whereof a great scarceness and dearth doth ensue. Be it therefore enacted, that none but merchants, venturers to Iceland, doggermen, or fishermen, that actually labour for the taking the said fish, shall buy fish to sell it again at the said fairs; and that no others shall sell salt fish there." None were to forestall fish coming to the said fairs; none were to buy within the said fairs fish to sell again; and none of the said privileged sellers were to buy fish at the sea side to be sold at the fairs, by others than themselves. The Act to be publicly proclaimed at the beginning and middle of the said fairs. This Act, which limited the buyers to a small privileged class, naturally inflicted great injustice on the fishermen, whose market was crippled, whilst the consumers had the price enhanced upon them by the monopoly created. It was found necessary to repeal all its provisions. 35, Hen. VIII, c. 7, 8.

We have seen (note page 25) the ferment created in the district by the grant by Edw. III of that Charter to Yarmouth, which virtually gave its burgesses an exclusive control over the supply of herrings. Tusser, who farmed in Norfolk, advises, in his *Five Hundred Points of Good Husbandry*, (A.D. 1557), thrifty housekeepers to buy at first hand during the fishing season.—

“When harvest is ended, take shipping or ride,
Ling, Salt-fish and Herring for Lent to provide
To buy it at first, as it cometh to road,
Shall pay for thy charges thou spendest abroad.”

Now timely for Lent Stuff thy money disburse,
The longer ye tarry, for profit the worse;
If one penny vantage be therein to save,
Of Coastman or Fleming be sure to have.

Either the cure was not so perfect as in the present day, or the stock-fish* dried to mummies and stacked in heaps with layers of pease straw better defied the ravages of time; for Tusser adds:

Spend herrings first, save salt-fish last,
For salt-fish is good when Lent is past.

Although our early sovereigns strove hard to regulate the price of their subjects' commodities, supply and demand, scarcity and surfeit, proved beyond their control. No incident connected with the Yarmouth Free Fair is, perhaps, more curious than that which attracted the notice of Gibbon, and to which he has made allusion in the 64th chapter of his *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*. Describing that calamitous irruption in the thirteenth century of the Tartar hordes under the descendants of Zingis Khan, which darkened the whole Latin world and desolated so large a portion of Europe, he adds:—“In the year 1238 the inhabitants of Gothia (Sweden) and Frise were prevented by the fear of the Tartars, from sending as usual their ships to the herring fishery on the Coast of England; and, as there was no exportation, forty or fifty of these fish were sold for a shilling (*Matthew of Paris*,† p. 396). It is whimsical enough that the orders of Mogul Khan, who reigned on the borders of China, should have lowered the price of herrings in the English market.”

* Stock-fish, dried cod. To make it palatable, seamen lay it upon the shank of an anchor and thump it well with a sledge-hammer or crow-bar.

† Matthew of Paris, the Monk of St. Alban's Abbey, was the author of a lengthy Latin Chronicle of English History, A.D. 1235-73. We give the passage which Gibbon has quoted:—“The inhabitants of Gothland and Friesland fearing their attacks (of the Tartars, who had just ravaged the southern shores of the Baltic,) did not, as was their wont, sail to Yarmouth, in England, at the time of the herring fisheries, at which place their ships usually loaded; and owing to this, herrings in that year were counted of no value, because of their great plenty, so that forty or fifty, although of excellent quality, were sold for one piece of silver, yea, and in places that were remote from the sea coast.” The Abbey of St. Albans traded in herrings and had a fish warehouse at Yarmouth, and to this circumstance we doubtless owe the record of the foregoing incident.

Processes of the Herring Fishery.

"Forthwith the sounds and seas, each creek and bay,
 With fry innumerable swarm, and shoals
 Of fish that with their fins, and shining scales,
 Glide under the green wave, in sculls that oft
 Bank the mid sea."—MILTON.

"Entire populations betake themselves each year to the pursuit of this humble habitant of our seas. From the remotest firths of Norway, downwards to the smallest creeks of Normandy, sally out innumerable squadrons of light boats, manned by fishermen, Norwegian, Swedish, Russ, Danish, German, Dutch, Scotch, English, Irish, French, eager to take their part in an assured booty, while at the same time veritable fleets, less numerous, but composed of vessels of large tonnage advance with the same intention as far as the Shetland Islands, and the Icelandic seas."—QUATREFOURS.

The Yarmouth and Lowestoft herring fishery is an autumnal one, commencing early in September, and continuing until the middle of December, the fish taken in October and November being those most highly esteemed. A certain degree of uncertainty always more or less attends its pursuit, forming just that element of good or ill luck which is found to possess with so many minds an attraction stronger than attaches to the ordinary round of plodding occupations. It is not surprising therefore, that as each year comes round, the mackerel fairing and herring fishery are looked forward to, anticipated, and discounted with an interest which never wearies, which no ill fortune disheartens, and which "age cannot stale, nor experience wither." Every class of the community participates more or less in the mild excitement, all can embark in the ventures of an enterprise free to all comers, and suiting itself to the capacity of every purse, from the capitalist who owns a fleet, to the 'long shore man, whose share in the trail boat which hugs the land, forms his sole worldly possession.

Although many glimpses of the operations of the herring fishery may be gained along the beach, and upon the quay and haven sides, it is only in the larger establishments that its various processes may be completely witnessed. We have been enabled to examine them under the most favourable circumstances, by the courtesy of Mr. Shuckford, whose fishing and curing operations are the largest in Yarmouth, and an account embodying the result of several visits to his premises, which extend over a large area at the back of the site of the old Priory Gardens, will assist in placing before our readers the successive stages of the fishery. To render the narrative consecutive, we shall somewhat invert the order in which we traversed the various yards and buildings, describing first those operations which pertain to the capture of the fish.

At the present day, the business of the fish merchant exacts for its successful prosecution as much skill, energy, and attention, as are

required in any other industrial pursuit. The more completely a boat is manned and provided, the better its chances, and the greater the promptitude and care in the landing, curing, and dispatch of the fish, the larger will be the market secured for it. At Mr. Shuckford's establishment, all that capital, organization, and experience can achieve in carrying out these requirements, may be seen in full operation. Everything as far as possible is made up on the spot. Nothing but boat building and net braiding appear to be omitted. There are complete workshops for wicker work, twine spinning, carpentry, cooperage, tarring, painting, tanning, together with salt stores, large ranges of stabling, &c.

In three weeks the herring fishery will commence, and in every department, busy preparations are going on for its approach. An enormous number of barrels are required every season, (7000 were used in the foreign export alone of this establishment last year,) and considerable ingenuity is displayed in stowing them overhead along the ceilings of all the floors and workshops, and stacking them in huge heaps against the wall sides of the yards. These barrels are of larch, &c., the staves a third of an inch in thickness, 26 inches in length, 15 inches diameter, and are of two sizes, barrels and half barrels, the former containing 600 fine, or 800 ordinary fish, the cost of the empty barrel ranging from 1*s.* 6*d.*, and when filled, its contents averaging according to quality, from 20*s.* to 28*s.*, and weighing nearly 2 cwt. The half barrel holds about 200 fish, and is in reality but a third the size of a full barrel.

The consumption of wicker work for smaller packages of fish is on a still larger scale. This has become of late years a convenient and very favourite mode of doing up the renowned bloaters and the choicest qualities of red herrings for the home market. Daily throughout the season thousands of 'peds' and 'pots,' dainty looking flat baskets with lids, holding respectively 125 and 100 herrings are despatched by rail to all the principal fishmongers of the United Kingdom. Five thousand of these are frequently sent off weekly from Mr. Shuckford's, and the total Yarmouth aggregate for the year must be something fabulous. This one subsidiary branch is of itself a considerable industry, and it is but one of the many ramifications of employment for which the herring fishery is remarkable.

On the ground flooring of the work-shops, the cordage and stores of each boat are being examined and repaired, or renewed,—when complete, they are piled in heaps, each with a label with the boat's name attached. At the close of every fishery,—the boats are dismantled, and all the rigging and stores carried to the lofts to undergo the scrutiny and refit rendered necessary by the heavy wear and tear they have to undergo.

The largest amount of stowage room is that required for the nets, and no wonder, as we shall presently see. They are ranged in

long roomy lofts, called net chambers, occupying the entire upper story of an extensive range of buildings. To the fisherman these nets are a continual source of anxiety and expense, from the numerous accidents and damage to which they are liable. Their great destroyer is the *dog-fish*,* which, when preying upon the herrings in the nets, cuts through the meshes with its sharp dorsal fins. Occasionally vessels sailing over the nets, tear them to fragments.† They are usually made of a strong two thread hempen twine,‡ which undergoes a process of tanning in

* *ACANTHIAS VULGARIS*. PICKED DOG-FISH.—BONE DOG, Sussex.—HOB, Orkney. The most common of all the Sharks, and found in every part of the British and Irish Seas. As many as twenty thousand are said to have been taken at one time in a pilchard sear off Cornwall. It measures from three to four feet, its upper part slate grey, its under yellowish white. In the Orkneys and Shetlands they are salted and dried for winter food.

"The dog-fish like the shark turns on its side when it seizes its prey, and greatly resembles that ravenous fish in many respects; and whenever it finds itself entangled in the net, disengages itself in a few seconds by making a large incision, and passes through. The dog-fish in attacking the herrings devours them to repletion. They then disgorge what they have swallowed with such voracity, which being completed they lose no time in re-commencing seizing and swallowing the herrings with as much avidity as if it had been their first repast after a long abstinence, till they are again full, when their stomachs are again speedily relieved, and this filling and emptying has continued with such perseverance as to exhaust the patience of the most curious observer. This process when carried on by numbers of the dog-fish about the nets, occasions a white shining appearance on the surface of the sea, accompanied with a smoothness, as if a quantity of oil had been strewed on it, emitting a rank oleaginous smell, which may be detected at some distance. These insatiable fish are assisted in their ravages by the sepia or cuttle-fish, which with their hard mouths resembling parrots' bills, cut up the mackerel and herrings with great adroitness."—MAJOR W. M. MORRISON, Edin. New Phil. Journal. 1829.

† An Act for the maintenance of the Navigation, 13, Eliz. c. 11, A.D., 1571, recites that "for the avoyding of the lewde outrages comytted and doone upon the sea coastes of Norfolke and Suffolke by the Catches-Mongers and Picardes pretending to buy freash herrynges and which do cut in sunder dyvers Peeces of Fysherment's Nettes traveling the Hyghe Seas to take fresh Herrynges, to the utter undoing of the said poor fishermen—be it enacted, that no person using any such ship, boate, or vessell shall in tyme of common fysshing upon the said sea coast, betweene the fourtene daye of Sept. and the fourtene daye of Nov., from sunne setting to sunne rysing anker upon the mayne sea or in the common streame or trade of fysshing where the fishermen use to drive, upon payne to forfeite their Pycker or Vessell, with the tackle and all the fysh in the same; thon half to your Majestie, the other half to the Bayliffes of Yarmouth to recompense damages to the party whose nettes shall so be cut, and to repair the decayed hayen there."

Another danger to the fishermen's nets arises from wrecks sunk in deep water upon the fishing grounds, and which if not properly buoyed produce great havoc.

‡ In addition to hempen twine, a coarse Persian silk was employed in the netting used in the Dutch Fisheries of the Seventeenth Century, as more durable. It was slightly pitched or exposed to the smoke of burning ash to acquire a dark colour and render it less perceptible by the fish.

cutch* at starting, to preserve them from rotting, and which is repeated at the close of the fishery in order to cleanse them thoroughly. A strong three twist cotton cord procured from Musselburgh, has lately been introduced as an experiment.† It is prepared by steeping in a mixture of linseed oil and varnish, and is then squeezed through rollers. This renders it stiff and smooth as wire when dried. It is afterwards subjected to the tanning process.

We clamber up the ladder leading to one of these net chambers, and find many hundreds of nets neatly stacked several feet high along the entire length of the flooring. A number of workmen are engaged in putting them in order for the fishery. These nets are made in four deeps, or lints, or widths. These widths, or breadths as a sempstress would call them, are each 8 feet in depth, and when joined together, as is the practice in fishing, form a wall in the sea 32 feet deep.‡ The length of these nets is 18 yards slack, and 27 actual measurement to allow for slack. A *fleet* of herring nets consists of many of these lengths of net attached together in a continuous line, and kept suspended in the water with a gentle slope at the desired height, by means of large corks or bungs (branded with the initials of the boat owners,) floating on the top. As the complement of drift nets supplied to a well found fishing lugger is 111, it will be seen that when all are paid out they extend over a mile in length. Each net is attached by short lines called *seisings* or *nossels*, placed at intervals of 6 inches to a double rope of manilla. It is on this that the corks are fixed at short distances apart. The entire length of nets are finally attached to the warp, an immense rope four inches in thickness, and occupying when coiled up, a very considerable space. The warp is held up by a number of buoys.

The men we have come across in this first loft, are aptly termed 'ransackers,' and are engaged in adding a new lint to the uppermost part of the net. Subject to fair wear and tear, a net is expected to last four years, the bottom lint being subject to the severest usage: the common practice is to add each year a new lint to the top, each lint thus annually descending a step lower in the order of arrangement. The width of the mesh for the herring

* Catechu, the wood of the *Acacia Catechu*, an East India tree, a solution of which gives the twine a brown hue. In the autumn the surface of the Yarmouth Denes covered over with nets spread out to dry has the appearance of a tan pit. Oak and ash bark were formerly employed. Care has to be taken not to over-tan the nets, the meshes of which would otherwise become contracted and too much hardened.

† This small twine whilst equalling in strength the common net is said to be less easily seen by the fish in the water, and to be consequently more successful in snaring them. It is recommended in the "Directions for taking and catching Herrings," written by Sir T. Dick Lauder, and issued by the British Fishery Board.

‡ The Scotch nets are about 22 feet deep, many of those on the West of Ireland coast are only 9 feet deep.

fishery is prescribed by Act of Parliament, one square inch from knot to knot, the aperture being termed by the net braiders a *went*, and by the fishermen a *gong*, or a *shale*,* and of these there are 32 to the yard.† It will be readily seen how necessary it is that the lint or net should *hang slack* upon its rope, for if taut these apertures would be stretched close together, and the fish could not get their heads through.

As the most important fishery, the herring nets take up the largest space here, but there are a variety of other descriptions. There are the mackerel nets, in length, 17 yards, with a mesh of 28 to the yard, and which, when the full *fleet* of twelve score nets are all paid out, extend for a length of 2½ miles. Trawling nets are required of a much stronger description for dragging along the sea bottom. They are dipped in tar, and are made in shape like a sack.

In a long loft adjoining that of the ransackers, is the work-room of the *beelsters*, women and girls engaged in *betting* or mending up the nets.‡ Standing up in the middle of the room with an ample window in front, and the net held extended by the left hand, every portion of it undergoes a minute scrutiny. To make a good repair, the meshes surrounding a fracture have to be cut away, a process which appears extremely wasteful until the inconceivable rapidity with which the new stitches are inwoven by the 'shales' or netting pins is witnessed.

Whilst these operations are going on at the curing yards, gangs of men are no less busily engaged at the haven side in preparing the fishing luggers for sea, caulking, painting, repairing wood work, and subjecting the boats to a thorough overhaul. The Yarmouth herring lugger, about the largest class of vessel employed in the herring fishery. Designed for the deep sea fishing, it combines great strength, large capacity of stowage, and sea worthiness. It has a tonnage averaging from 30 to 50 tons, is clinker-built,§ and rigged with three masts and a bowsprit, the main mast being left ashore in the winter. It has three

* The terms *went*, *mesh*, *gong*, and *shale*, appear to be used somewhat confusedly. *Went* is the net braider's term, a *gong* is formed by half the stitches which complete the mesh, *shale* is properly the particular netting pin, which is thrust into the mesh to draw tight the knots and give it the correct gauge.

† The use of the inch mesh is universal in the herring fishery off the British Coasts, and is strictly prescribed to the fishermen of France by the regulations of the fishery convention.

‡ "Pipen he coude, and fishe, and bettes bete."—CHAUCER'S REVE'S TALE BETAX, Sax., to prepare—to make ready. In the sense used above the term does not appear in the Archaic Dictionaries of Nares, Wright, Halliwell, or Richardson, and we are inclined to believe the word is a local one. Chaucer adds— "OF NORFOLK, was this Reve of which I tell."

§ Clinker-built, is with the outerplanks overlapping each other. In carvel-building, as in ordinary ships, the planks are laid flush, edge to edge.

lugsails, topsails, mizen, foresail, and jib. It lies low in the water, and is furnished with rollers and boards to facilitate the haulage of the nets. Its value with all its nets and stores on board, is computed at £1000.* The wear and tear of the fishery outfit is excessive. The value of a new herring net is estimated at £2. Of these from five to six score, forming a *fleet*, are taken out. In the course of the season four fleets will be brought into use, owing to the continual repair they require. Eight warps support the nets. Each warp is 120 fathoms (of 6 feet) in length, weighing nearly 6 cwt., at 40s. the cwt. Twelve score of mackarel nets, the usual complement, may be set down at £1 each, and 16 warps will be needed to suspend them. A mackarel net will last out several herring nets. They are neither exposed to the havoc created by the dog fish—damaging, as they sometimes do, a fleet of nets to the extent of £50 in a single night—nor to the grease with which the latter are saturated from the herrings, and which rots them rapidly unless they are continually cleansed. The loss of nets in rough weather is another serious item. To an inexperienced eye the pile of nets heaped up at a fishing lugger's bow, has a confused, disorderly aspect. They are all, however, very carefully stowed in regular order for shaking out, the oldest and frailest laying usually at the top to be first shot overboard.

We will suppose the hour of sailing has come, the nets have been packed, the salt and provision stowed away, and whilst the boat is dropping down the stream to the harbour mouth,† we will proceed to muster the crew of 12 hands. There is the master, mate, oarsman, whaleman, net rope man, net stower, younker, four capstan men, and odd boy. Their several duties are distinctly assigned, and master and mate have specific tasks, as well

* By the Herring Fisheries Act of 1860, boats with their sails and gear are required to be numbered, a valuable precaution for identifying all fishing property, on shore and at sea, if lost, stolen, or picked up afloat. A friendly regulation exists amongst fishermen as to stray and lost nets, which, if found, are to be taken on board and delivered to their owners, on payment of a shilling for each net.

† As the Herring boats leave Yarmouth for the sea, they are often accompanied along the haven's side by the boys of Gorleston, singing

Herrings Galore,
Pray Master?
Gay Master,
Luff the little herring boat ashore.
Pray God send you eight or nine last—
Fair gains all,
Good weather,
Good weather,
All herrings—no dogs;

SING UP.—Fair gains all.

This ditty is kept up until the greeting of their noisy escort has been acknowledged by the crew throwing them biscuits.

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as a general superintendence. The oarsman's duty is to be in the forward part of the boat, and to put on and take off the bowls and seisings from the warps, as the nets are being paid out or hauled in.* The whaleman stands amidships paying out or hauling in the nets—the net ropeman also pays out and hauls in, holding the net rope—the net stower gives out or stows away the nets in the net room, a large chamber in the forepart of the boat. The youngster, or all-work man, has to lend a hand and make himself generally useful, and has specially to assist the master and mate in scudding,† or shaking out the fish from the nets down into the main hatchway or well, whilst the capstan men have the laborious task of hauling in the warp with its fleet of nets. The boy coils the ropes and a variety of odd jobs.

The fishing grounds traversed every autumn by the Yarmouth and Lowestoft herring busses, may be said to extend as far north as Hartlepool; the vessels usually commencing low down and working homewards, the best fish being captured in mid-season off the Norfolk coast.‡ In the course of that period the trackless fields of ocean are beat up for their watery game, as systematically as any salmon preserve or Highland moor. The art and mystery of herring catching is a craft which theory cannot teach, and which its practitioners seem unable to impart by any *vivâ voce* explanations. It is a species of second nature, an instinct engendered by the requirements of the occupation. Much valuable knowledge is dispersed among fishermen, and it has its unwritten and traditional lore which its possessors have neglected to systematise, and seem to feel no interest in recording, and which in consequence becomes in course of years, forgotten or neglected even by themselves.

The nature of the coasts with their varying shore lines,—the temperature and physical character of the seas, and sounds, and channels,—their æstuaries, shoals, and tidal currents,—the haunts

* These bowls, or small barrels serve as buoys to the warp which sustains the fleet of nets, and are fastened to it by stout 14 feet ropes, called bowl straps. They are painted different patterns, and each has its place. Thus, to the end of the warp, a white bowl called the puppy is attached, next comes a red bowl, called the casting—for this reason, that up to this period the boat has been lying head to the wind, but when this portion of the nets are in the water, they cause the boat to swing or cast broadside on—after this, a bowl painted three-quarters white, called the quarter bowl—next follows one half white, half black, called the half bowl—succeeded by one a quarter white, called the quarter bowl—last of all is a black bowl—and between all these, at intervals, are a number of black bowls.

† 'Skuddawns' is an Irish term for herrings.

‡ From the evidence given by Mr. S. Hobbins, before a Parliamentary Commission, in 1798, the usual limits of the Yarmouth and Lowestoft herring fishery at that period were from 5 to 10 leagues to the north, 10 to 15 leagues eastward, extending south occasionally to the North and South Forelands. The depth of water where the fishery was carried on averaged from 15 to 20 fathoms.

and habits of the several tribes of herrings,—the local superstitions of a race proverbially credulous,—all exert a modifying influence on the task of the fisherman, and have given rise to differing modes and usages in fishing, and nothing is perhaps more characteristic in herring lore, than the contradictory nature of the oracles pronounced by its ancient mariners, as to the nature of those adverse or propitious conjunctures of winds and weather, which constitute the most favourable times and seasons for letting down their nets into the deep. Fortunately, when the herring is on the coast, it must be very 'coarse' weather indeed which deters the Yarmouth and Lowestoft fishermen from trying their luck, and they catch them 'in all weathers.'

At the commencement of the season the Yarmouth herring boats, taking from six to eight tons of salt on board, will begin fishing between Flamborough Head and the Humber, moving gradually south towards Cromer. As the temperature is then usually warm, and the catches of fish not very heavy at starting, it is a common practice to sail in small fleets, vessels from which are detached from time to time to take home the joint produce. From Cromer the next move will be easterly to the back of the Lemon Sand, thence about Smith's Knowl, working from this point forty to fifty miles S.E., then back again to the Knowl, a favourite 'drifting' ground. Each boat is now hard at work fishing "on its own hook," coming into the Roads with cargoes every few days if lucky, filling up again with salt, provisions, fresh netting, and hastening back to sea; and thenceforward to the close of the season the "drifts" will be made within a radius of fifty miles from a point taken a few leagues east of Yarmouth. If tidings arrive that the shoals, or scholes, are moving in a particular locality, there is a general *sauve qui peut* towards the quarter indicated. When the boats are drawn together by an attraction of this kind, elbow-room becomes scanty, and unusual care is required to prevent the nets fouling. The fishery has its 'rules of the road,' and no offence is more unpardonable than that of 'underlaying'—shooting a fleet of nets in front of those of another boat to intercept its catch. To prevent entanglement of the nets the rule is, that no fishing vessel anchors except in daylight when the nets are up, or when the night is so calm as to render shooting the nets impossible. The results would be serious if there were no unanimity amongst the crews, and some were to persist in anchoring whilst others fished.

The herring fishery is usually carried on in the night, and dark nights with a gentle breeze are considered the most favourable.*

* "It is found that the fish strike the nets in much greater numbers when it is dark than when it is light; the darkest nights therefore, and those in which the surface of the water is ruffled by a breeze, are considered the most favourable. It is supposed that nets stretched in the daytime alarm the fish

Valenciennes describes the Dutch and French fishermen as attracting the fish to their nets by the display of lights, and in accounts of the Yarmouth fishery a grand display of torches is often introduced. As regards the latter, the only light shewn on deck is a lantern, burning tallow sixes, placed on the midship board for the use of the crew.* The presence or approach of herrings is almost instinctively known by experienced fishermen, in whom both the senses of smell and hearing have been acutely developed, by a number of indications—the flight of the gull†—the swell of the

and cause them to quit the places where that practice is followed; it is therefore strictly forbidden. When water is smooth, clear, and undisturbed, the sight of fishes is very acute.”—YARRELL.

One of the last century regulations of the Scotch fishery prohibited fishing by moonlight, as likely to disturb and scare the herrings. We cite the following in illustration of the difference of opinion on this point which exists among fishermen:—“Herrings are often known to feed or lie at the bottom of the sea, motionless and torpid all day, and great part of the nights. Frequently the fishermen in some hundreds of yawls and boats in loch fishing, after setting their nets at four o’clock of a winter’s evening, rest on their oars, or examine their nets, sometimes for eight hours in succession, without a single herring being found in any of them; and yet the instant the moon makes its appearance, the great body of herrings spring up from the bottom like a flock of small birds, in such numbers and with such velocity and force that every train of nets in the line of the shoal is raised by them above the surface of the water; while the fish struggling to be disengaged, appear like a long web of white linen, from the immense numbers entangled in the meshes.”—Mackenzie’s Prize Essay in the Trans. Highland Society, 1803.

“The fishermen in the North of Scotland have a foolish rhapsody which begins thus,— “The herring loves the merry moonlight,

And the mackerel likes the wind.”

Islands of Orkney & Shetland by Patrick Neill, Sec. Nat. Hist. Sy. Edin. 1806, Scott, who like his ‘Antiquary’ was “a diligent collector of these legendary scraps of poetry,” has placed these lines in the mouth of old Elspeth, chap. xix.

“The fishermen of Normandy believe that, at the rising and setting of the moon, combined with a tranquil sea, the herrings fill their nets most readily.”—VALENCIENNES.

* The error has probably arisen from the large number of vessels often lying wind-bound in the Yarmouth Roads, and which are ordered to carry lanterns at night at the mast-head to guard against collisions.

Neucrants writing in 1654, speaks of this practise, but says it was disused by the Dutch in his time, as more likely to frighten away the fish than to attract them. In rough weather, the Dutch fishing fleets kindled lights to signal to each other and prevent the fouling of their nets.

† BLOCH, in the account of the Herring in his magnificent *ICHTHOLOGIE*, folio, Berlin, 1785, describing the fishery of the Baltic and North Sea, writes:

“Birds also in thousands pounce down upon the herrings from mid-air, above all the Owl. (*la chouette*.) This bird indicates to the fishermen the most fitting quarter for shooting their nets. When its flight is elevated, it is a sign that the herring is deep down, when it flies low it denotes that the herring is moving at the surface of the water, when the weather is hot the fish keep in deep water, where the owl cannot see them, nor serve as an indicator, and the fishing is then usually bad.”

The Herring Gull renders our fishermen a similar service. The Yarmouth fishers are greatly averse to the flocks of gannets which frequently attend the herring shoals. They announce the presence of their dreaded pest, the dog-fish, with whom the gannets act in offensive alliance, the former scaring the fish to the surface, whence they are driven back by the latter.

water, which has an oily gleam upon it, and sends out from the bows of the boat phosphorescent sparkles of light—the smell of the dog-fish and herring—and the sound of their movements in the water.* Off the Scotch coast, the herring-hog or porpoise is an infallible indicator. The fish in the daytime are believed to lie at the bottom of the sea, and to rise to the surface in the evening. In the long midsummer twilights of the north of Scotland, when fishing along the coast, the nets have to lie deep in the water. Thunder, sudden changes of temperature, tempests, and various causes are supposed to influence the movements of the herring. There are times when the herring rises to the surface, raising its head out of the water to suck in the air, with a sound like heavy rain drops pattering on the sea. At others, the dorsal fin and back appear above the surface. Pennant has described the splendour of this scene in the Western Lochs and Bays of Scotland,† when in the calm nights of autumn, as the moon climbs the horizon, its beams fall upon the serried ranks of the shoals, the sea glistening like a plain of precious stones, and its waters sparkling with the phosphoric gleams produced by the moving hordes.

The wind most favourable to the Yarmouth fishery is the south-

* The Norwegian fishermen, who in their northern latitudes fish night and day indifferently, are averse to shooting their nets unless convinced of the presence of a shoal. In the daytime therefore they watch for the fish with an instrument called the Vaudkikkat or Water Telescope, a trumpet-shaped tube of wood with a glass plate inserted in its broad end. This is pushed under water, and the eye of the observer applied to its upper extremity enables him to see a considerable depth, the vision being undisturbed by the shifting lines of the surface. Some experiments have been made with this on our Eastern Coast, but the height of the waves and the thickness of the water, prevent its being used with much effect. It appears to be more adapted for the shallow firths of Norway, and the clear unruffled waters of the Western Highland Lochs, where objects may be seen by it at a considerable depth.

† "On a fine day, when the fish appear near the surface, they exhibit an amazing brilliancy of colours; all the coruscations that dart from the diamond, sapphire, and emerald, enrich their tract; but during night if they BRAY, i. e. play on the surface, the sea appears on fire, luminous as the brightest phosphorus. During a gale, that part of the ocean which is occupied by the great shoals appears as if covered with the oil that is emitted from them."—PENNANTS' VOYAGE TO THE HEBRIDES, 1773.

"The darkness of the night increased the scaly brilliancy which the phosphoric properties of these beautiful fish produce. The bottom of the boat, now covered with herrings, glowed with a living light, which the imagination could not create, and the pencil never imitate. The shades of gold and silvery gems were rich beyond description; and much as I had heard of phosphoric splendour before, every idea I had formed fell infinitely short of its reality."—WILD SPORTS IN THE WEST.

"On Wednesday night the Claddagh fishermen had scarcely reached the roadstead, going out to lay their nets, when the shoal met them swimming against the sides of the boats, and under the clear and beautiful moonlight, illuminating the bright waters as though it was a sea of silver on which they floated."—SAUNDERS' NEWS LETTER.

west. A moonlight night, overcast with clouds, and the surface of the water ruffled with a breeze is welcomed by the fishermen. The herrings then swim in midwater, instead of high or low, as is their usual wont. On a very clear moonlight night they are believed to keep to the bottom. A storm of wind or rain, succeeded by cloudy, calm or hazy weather, or the wind blowing off shore, are considered propitious.* It has been frequently observed off this coast that in squally weather, and during a gale, the fish sink and disappear—afterwards an abundant fishing is anticipated.†

The nets are usually lowered or shot at sunset, and the fishing goes on through the night. Before shooting, or hauling in, the foremast is lowered on to the 'mitch board'—a corruption of mid-ship board. As the boat reaches the fishing ground, the fleet of nets, which is always shot with the tide over the vessel's quarter, is paid out east and west athwart the tide, which rapidly carries them out. When all are shot, the boat under bare poles drifts with them, her head riding to the nets and fishing against the current of the tide, against which also the herrings swim. The fish are by this means quietly meshed in the position in which they swim, and the shoals are not frightened by the capture of a portion of them. The extent of fishing ground drifted across during the night will be ten or twelve miles: if wind and tide are conflicting, less. The best fishing is when the tide runs strongest, a greater distance being traversed. In an ebb tide most herrings are taken on the north side of the nets, and on the south side in a low-water tide. The warp along which the fleet of nets are supported is made fast to a cable from the vessel's bow, which in stormy weather is let out to ease the vessel's strain, to the extent of 80 or a 100 fathoms. In fine weather about 40 fathoms (240 feet) are out. Considerable management is required to keep the fleet of nets in a right position, to prevent it fouling those of other boats, and to raise or lower it according as the fish lie. This is done by shortening or lengthening the ropes attached to the bowls. Frequently it is desirable to ascertain if the fish are striking the nets. This is done by following the line of the back rope, and raising here and there a portion of the netting. The boat is usually kept under easy sail until daylight, when all hands are summoned, and the labour of hauling in the nets by the aid

* The depth of water averages about fifteen fathoms. Experienced fishermen do not look so much to the birds for indications of the presence of fish, selecting localities commended by past experience, and choosing those where the sea has a thick muddy colour.

† It is in general observed by fishers that during strong northern or eastern winds the herring retreats into the deeps, but that during south and west winds they come into shoal water and approach nearer the shores—**DR. WALKER'S ESSAY ON THE HERRING.**

of the capstan commences.* "As the nets are hauled in, it is a beautiful sight to see the shimmering fish as they come up like a sheet of silver from the sea, uttering a weak death chirp as they are flung to the bottom of the hold."† The nets are hauled in a-mid-ships, over the rollers fixed to the vessel's side, to the main hatchway, where they are rapidly shaken out.‡ When the fish have all been scudded out, the nets are lowered to their chamber until evening, and the salting commences.§ This is done by the mate and oarsman who stand in compartments called wings, on each side the well or hold. As fast as they salt and pack the herrings in these wings, the net rope man who is in the hold feeds them with a constant supply of herrings. Bay salt, procured from Nantwich and Liverpool, is used, at the rate of a third of a ton to a last. More salt is required in hot weather than in cold. Dissolving slowly, it furnishes a gradual supply of brine. The duration of the boat's absence from land usually extends from three days to a week, by which time a full cargo is hoped for. We will

* "When the wind is high and every mesh is tenanted by a herring, the labour of raising the nets, which appear as they are drawn out of the water like sheets of burnished silver, is excessive. The labour is moreover always increased, when by some accident the herrings die before the nets are raised. This arises from the circumstance, that, while bodies of white fish, such as cod, &c., float when dead; those of fish with comparatively small air bladders sink when life is extinct. Hugh Miller relates that a few years ago the nets of fishers in the Moray Frith gorged with dead herrings could not be raised by the united exertions of three crews, and were obliged to be abandoned."—C. R. WALD.

† "Several of the herring boats were unsuccessful, some only partially so, while others which we came along-side of, higher up Loch Ainort, were hauling in the treasures of the deep like countless wedges of pure silver. It was a curious sight to see the busy brawny-armed boatmen hauling up these great black bundles of meshes, with the brilliant fishes sticking to them by the gills, and forming spots and stripes of silver. The net as it uprose from the deep, might have been almost likened to a portion of the heavens above, so varied was the grouping of its constellations. Sometimes a black extent of pitchy darkness, then a solitary twinkling star, next "shining out in twos and threes," anon a blaze of light, followed by glittering though more scattered gems, a spangle here and there with dimmer "plaiads" intermingled."—WILSON'S COASTS OF SCOTLAND.

‡ In the Museum of the Seaman's Home, on the beach, is a very interesting model of a Yarmouth lugger hauling her catch on board. An examination of this will afford a clearer insight to the visitor than can be gained by any verbal detail.

§ "The whole of the fish should be carefully shaken out from each successive part of the net, as it is taken into the boat. If this is not done, the herrings are liable to be much jerked about with every pull the net receives whilst in the boat, and so are stript of their scales, are bruised, torn, and broken, become soft, are more or less tainted and rendered unmarketable, whilst herrings immediately shaken from the net, being alive at the times fall easily from the meshes into the bottom of the boat, where they remain in a beautiful state, with every scale adhering to them, and continue firm and uninjured until the boat reaches the beach."—FROM SIR T. DICK LAUDER'S DIRECTIONS.

assume the catch has been favourable, and day by day the crew have been cramming the fish below. It is wonderful how elastic the capacity of stowage can be made. The boat is usually parted off into four compartments beside the forecastle and cabin—net room, dry well, mast way, and a rope room where the boy coils the ropes. The wings are first filled, then the mast way is emptied of its contents, the warps are next all brought on deck, and the beer and water casks and part of the ballast is flung over board. As the stock of salt which is kept in two wings in the rope room gives out, herrings take its place, the net room is next invaded; every nook and corner is filled up, and last of all the hold which has been repeatedly emptied of its contents, is crammed until it can contain no more. It is now high time to make for land. The boat's return has been awaited with an eager interest, and the horizon swept from the look-outs. Every fish merchant has a distinctive mark by which his boats can be known at any time—some a diamond, others a heart. Mr. Shuckford's have two white streaks along the gunwale. The practised eye of the ferrymen on the beach, waiting to transport her cargo to land, can tell almost to a last, from the trim of the boat in the water, the amount of her catch. Probably the boat's luck has been signalled,* and by the time she drops anchor in the Roads every preparation to receive her cargo has been made.

Unless at the commencement of the season, and when the take has been unusually heavy, the Yarmouth custom is to unlade the fishing boats in the Roads. This is done by the beachmen in large ferry boats, at a fixed price of 8s. per last, and the launching and landing of these are among the liveliest scenes of the beach.

At this stage of the fishery, and until the herring has been coopered down in barrel, a very curious series of wicker baskets of all sizes and shapes, and with singular names attached, come into play. We begin with the *boat mawnd*. The fish are shovelled out of the boat with a broad wooden scoop into these, which hold about 200 fish, and from these are transferred in *swills*, coarse osier baskets of a double pannier shape and containing 500, to the fish warehouse. During this process, they undergo a rough enumeration. The Yarmouth fishermen's "long" tale is reckoned by fours, instead of by fives or tens, both for green or fresh fish, and for cured. The fish are counted by taking two in each hand and throwing the four together in a heap. Thus,

Four herrings make a warp,

Thirty-three warps make a hundred,

or one hundred and thirty-two fish according to the Arabic

* The most common mode of transmitting telegrams on the beach between the master and the impatient owner, is for the latter to raise his arm aloft. In reply to this signal the master comes to the vessel's quarter and repeats it, slowly moving his arm up and down. Each elevation represents a last of herrings. The odd thousands are conveyed by as many wavings round the head.

notation. One hundred of these make a last—13,200 fish. When defined by measurement, twenty swills are computed to form a last.

As fast as the swills are filled, they are rapidly conveyed to the curing house, on barrow carts—long vehicles, light, balanced on two wheels, and which are now superseding the old Yarmouth trollies. They are larger, lighter, and have their wheels carried outside the shafts instead of within. These carts are very numerous here, and during the season are incessantly engaged in hurrying to and fro between the beach, the quay, and the various curing-houses; their owners, all, as is the custom here, driving like the son of Nimshi. At the curing house, the 'tower' or master man, whose duty it is to superintend the entire process, with his assistants called 'roarers,' who are armed with short sturdy wooden spades, called roaring shovels, are in waiting to receive them. Two men are told off to unload the cart, to lift down the swills, and empty their contents upon the brick floor of the 'barfe'* house. Whilst the roarers turn over the herrings, spreading them in layers like malt upon a floor, until they rise into a pile designated a cob, the tower rapidly salts each layer. After lying in the cob heap for a length of time, which depends on their destination, and whether they were landed salted or fresh, twelve hours if for bloaters, ten days or a fortnight if for red herrings, they are removed to undergo the next process, in *cob maunds*, open wicker baskets, to the cleansing vats. Arrived at these, they are transferred to the *washing maunds*, still larger two handled circular baskets, shallow, and with wide interstices, and which a powerful man is incessantly engaged in keeping in motion in large wooden vats filled with clean water. When the fish have been thoroughly rinsed and cleansed they are carried hence in *riying maunds* to the hanging houses, to undergo the process of smoking. These are lofty buildings with openings at top, provided with wooden shutters. They are arranged in spaces of four feet, called *rooms*, divided by beams. Above these are upright timbers about five feet apart, and the spaces between the uprights are called "quarter keys," to which at intervals of a foot, horizontal splines called 'loves' running across the chamber, are secured. To the eye, this interior has the aspect of being filled with continuous ladders. A gang of 'rivers' of from twelve to twenty women, are here standing before large wooden troughs, engaged in riving the fish as they are emptied out of the riving maunds. This is done upon riving spits—rods, $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet in length, of fir with sharpened points. The point is drawn through one gill and the mouth of the fish. Each fish is kept a finger space apart from its fellows, to prevent their touching

* The Barfe House is usually a covered shed open at the side. The term is possibly a corruption of the local word Barth, a sheltered place, vide TUSSEN.

each other. If this happens, they are liable to get only partially smoked, and are then called clappers. When the spits are covered with herrings, they are laid upon wood trussels termed horses, until the men or boys are ready to ascend the loves and hang them up, tier above tier. Seven of these loves, which stand a foot apart in height, are within a man's reach, and are called a fleeting. When full, the building is closed, the fish are left to hang for a few hours, and then the purgatorial fires are lit and the smoking of the herring commences. In each space or *room* of four feet, four fires of oak billets are lit upon the floor.* These after a time are suffered to go out, causing the fish to undergo a sweating process, and the fat to drip down; when the fires are re-lit the fish take the colour better. The smoking of the fish is prolonged or shortened to suit the market for which they are destined. The Yarmouth 'bloater' hangs for the London market, where the sale is immediate, 24 hours, —and for the manufacturing districts, where a week may elapse before the supply is consumed, 48 hours. For the Mediterranean, the chief market of the high dried herrings, a fortnight's salting in the cob, and a fortnight in the hanging house, is the time usually assigned. Then, if thrown upon the floor they fall with a dry rattling sound, which gives token of the artistic perfection of the process they have undergone, and they will keep sweet for an almost unlimited period. We examined at Mr. Shuckford's a box of herrings cured for the Australian market in 1858, which appeared almost as fresh as the day on which they were taken off the loves. These are the Yarmouth 'red herrings' of rich golden hue, to be seen in every little grocery store in England and on the Continent. The manufacture of red herrings is obviously a more elaborate and skilled process, and one requiring a much larger outlay of capital than is needed for the very simple operations of pickling and barrelling. It may fairly take rank as the 'high art' department of this branch of fish curing.

150,000 herrings can be smoked in the hanging house we have been inspecting, and in the spacious range of curing houses of Mr. Shuckford, a hundred lasts (1,320,000) can be prepared for the market at one and the same time. From 700 to 800 lasts have been cured here in the course of a season.

For the final operation a 'packing guard' is told off. Their task commences with 'striking,' i.e. taking down the spits from the loves, after which their labour is thus divided, one to cull (select qualities), one to tell (count), one to draw spits (strip off the fish), one to pack, one to cooper up,—the 'tower' superintending this as well as the previous stages. In packing in barrels the fish are all laid in layers with their heads outwards. Before exportation,

* Ash was formerly used very largely, and is still employed for smoking herrings for the English market.

the casks are put under a screw press and strongly compressed. They are then headed up.*

We have been describing the fishery as conducted on a large scale. Small ownerships are much more common. There is a numerous class termed Adventurers or Fish Owners, consisting of retired mariners or landmen, who invest in boats or netting.† A large number of boats of various tonnages, lugger-rigged, participate in the Yarmouth fishery, many of them belonging to Ramsgate, Hastings, and other southern ports.‡ There are also the half-and-half boats, small decked luggers of 14 or 15 tons, with crews of 6 or 7 hands. These last have gone on increasing in numbers and size of late years, until they now form an important branch of the fishery, and appear destined—as we shall have occasion to show presently—to effect a revolution in the present mode of conducting it. A still smaller class of craft are the along-shore rowing boats, generally manned by three or four hands and owned by the men who sail them. The catch of all these vessels is usually sold by auction on the beach as soon as landed. Whilst it is being sorted and arranged in heaps, a crier, bell in hand, traverses the beach, and an eager crowd of buyers hasten round. The lots are put up by Dutch auction, and their sale frequently affords considerable amusement to the spectators. Fish curing is carried on exclusively as an occupation by some persons. During the season, the fish merchants and curers of the large inland towns have their agents stationed here to make purchases, and much of the fish they buy is pickled in brine before it is sent off. The Scotch houses have also their representatives in the fishery, and Scotch women are brought here to gyp or gut the fish, and pickle them Scotch fashion. Hundreds of barrels cured by this method, may be seen during the autumn lying on the denes. Unlike the New-haven and Normandy fishwives, women and girls take no part here in catching or selling the fish. They mend the nets of their husbands at

*In Willoughby's *De Historiâ Piscium*, folio 1686, a description is given, supplied to him by Sir Philip Skippon from personal observation, of the Yarmouth fishery and mode of cure. From this it appears that many of the local terms, such as seasins, tower, swill, loves, &c., were then in use. The warp went by the name of 'wallop.' In the "Account of the Herring Fishery by Simon Smith, Agent for the Royall Fishing, 1641," (Charles the First's Scheme,) the meshes are termed masses, and the warps, way-ropes—clearly the original term gradually corrupted, e.g., way-ropes,—wallops,—warps.

† An unusually fortunate year is apt to give rise to a mania of speculation in the season which follows. With many tradesmen the temptation to embark in the fishery is irresistible. "A fish merchant's loss" is an old local by-word, illustrating a propensity sometimes exhibited in other callings. A man starts an enterprise in the fishery and resolves to realise £500. He clears only £300, and thereupon croaks to the circle of his acquaintance that he has lost £200.

‡ The Scarborough Cobles, which for three centuries have appeared in every description of the Yarmouth fishery, have latterly ceased to frequent it, fishing and curing now on their own coast. There are more of what are called West Country Boats, but in reality most of these are from Ramsgate and Hastings.

home or work in the curing houses, betting-up nets, and riving fish.

Herrings are cured in a variety of ways at Yarmouth to suit particular markets. Some are cured to bring out as bloaters for a spring sale; others are kippered—split and cured as bloaters, somewhat like Finnan haddocks. The greatest *bonne bouche* is the 'long shore herring, a small, plump, delicious fish, taken in the Roads during the early part of the season, in small quantities only, and in fine weather, by the beachmen in their rowing boats. This is the 'Yarmouth bloater' *par excellence*, and so highly appreciated by the natives that very few find their way elsewhere. It is slightly cured and eaten fresh, and in flavour bears about the same relation to other herrings that Schloss Johannisberger and Chateau Margaux do to meaner vintages, and is just as accessible to the public at large. Not twenty lasts are taken in a season, and they will readily sell on the spot at 16s. per 100, cured.

There is a midsummer herring fishery, lasting for four or five weeks in May and June. The fish, which have a small semi-fluid roe, are slightly cured as bloaters, and very highly esteemed for their delicate flavour, selling fresh at 8s. to 10s. per 100. They are so large as to be frequently taken in the mackerel nets. The demand for them is in excess of the supply, and consequently none are smoked as 'red herrings.' In the midsummer voyage there are a great number of undecked boats from Scotland fishing off the coast, and bringing their fish in to Yarmouth to sell.

The capture of young and immature fish in the early spring months is strongly denounced in Yarmouth, and but little practised there, in consequence of the fish merchants and curers setting their faces against it. At Lowestoft, where the half-and-half mode of fishing prevails, many voyages are made; but as the catches average but a few lasts, and are frequently unsuccessful, the result can hardly be remunerative enough to warrant the premature destruction of what, if unmolested for a few weeks longer, would prove a noble crop of midsummer herrings. These spring herrings are not large enough nor in such condition as to induce the curers to purchase to any extent; and, excepting what are sold as bait to the cod and ling fishers,* the bulk of the catch

* Cod and ling, and other large fish live at certain periods of the year almost exclusively on herring, and they can be caught with difficulty by any other than herring bait. The remarkable fluctuation in the price of herrings is forcibly illustrated by what came under our own notice at Lowestoft, in Easter week, 1863. During Lent the catch of spring herrings of several of the Lowestoft boats, which varied from half a last to two or three, found eager purchasers in the Boulogne fishermen, who bought them at the fabulous prices of from 10s. to 13s. per 100 for bait. One boat made £33 of about 7000 herrings. Another sold a last at the same rate (£30). But few boats had fish, and the Frenchmen ran up the prices. A few days after, the same herrings landed at Lowestoft sold at three-pence per 100. A day or two later we saw the days' catch dispatched to Dover for bait, purchased at 3s. per 100.

is sold at very low prices, often for manure. About 500 lasts were brought into Lowestoft in the spring of 1862.

An immense quantity of fish oil finds its way every year from the curing houses into the drains of Yarmouth. Chemical science might surely convert this to a more profitable use. Many tons of broken fish, of which this oil forms the richest ingredient, are purchased and used as manure in the immediate district, and an inquiry into the fertilising results obtained, might lead to the utilisation of the liquid. In France and Sweden attempts have been made upon a large scale to distil from the refuse portions of the herring, such as the eyes, gills, and intestines, an oil which might serve as a substitute in some cases for whale oil. About a century ago, when the coasts of Sweden were frequented by unusually large shoals of herrings, as many as 200 distilleries were set up along the shores, and the entire fish was melted down, the residuum bearing the name of *trangrum*. The oil thus extracted found a ready sale as an article of food among the inhabitants of the polar regions, and had also a variety of commercial uses. In Sweden, the *trangrum* was regarded as the most valuable of manures, but the country absorbed no adequate consumption of it; this, and the disappearance of the herrings, occasioned as was supposed by the masses of it flung into the sea, led to the extinction of the distilleries. M. de Quatrefages pronounces this *trangrum*, to be an agricultural fertiliser, of a value equal to the guano of Peru. Composed almost entirely of azotic substances, containing also phosphorus in various states of combination, it presents all the elements necessary for the alimentation of vegetables, specially of cereal crops. Certain precautions would be necessary in its transport, arising from its liability to putrefaction. He recommends dessiccation, and its compression into cakes.*

We have been sitting on a heap of nets in the ransackers' room, noting down many of the particulars relating to the fishery from the lips of a small knot of boats' masters, and, now, in conclusion, we ask a few questions on the natural history of the herring, and

* Fish manure, chiefly sprats, is used on the East coast as an application for turnips, and sold at 8d. to 1s. per bushel. 40 bushels and upwards are applied to the acre. The composition of sprats is—

Water - - -	64.6	Nitrogen - - -	1.20
Organic matter - - -	33.3	Phosphoric Acid - - -	0.91
Ash - - -	2.1		

100

A common practise about Colchester is to draw the sprats on to the land as with gypsum, &c., to the manure heap, where it is deposited in layers, alternating with dung. Frequently they are carted on to the land and at once ploughed in.

Herring refuse, consisting chiefly of 'cropshen,' or headless and broken fish, gills, eyes, intestines, &c., is not usually employed alone, but is more advantageously made into compost, with an equal bulk of soil, and allowed to ferment thoroughly before being applied to the land.

first, whether fishermen look upon sprats as the young fry of the herring. To this there is an immediate negative all round the room, and certain differences which they had observed, were pointed out. The young herring has a smooth belly, the sprat a rough serrated one. If a young herring be held up by the middle fin of the back he will hang head down, if a sprat, tail down.*

Does a herring die the moment it is drawn out of the water?—Upon this point it was curious to see the discussion which arose, each man appealing to the experience of his mates, until one old master, who was evidently looked up to by the rest, declaring that he had frequently been compelled to knock off when salting herrings which had lain a considerable time in the hold, from their incessant flirting of the salt into his eyes, this evidence was ruled as final in the negative: all were unanimous on the strange shriek or squeak occasionally emitted by the herring in its dying struggles.

Speaking of great catches of fish, the master of the *Racehorse*, related that some years back he returned after a week's absence, with 26 lasts of herrings (343,200) on board. Of these, 17,000 fish caught in the last twenty-four hours, for which they had neither stowage nor salt, had to be piled on deck.†

We alluded to the reports sought to be put in circulation in the North, as to the alleged inferiority of the Yarmouth herring to the Scotch.

"What?" cried our old skipper, suddenly firing up, "them Bay fishers catch better fish nor ours? why just you do but look at 'em after they've bin hangin a week on our loves, why you can see through 'em, and count every bone in their body! And then the taste of 'em, the mazy things, why they ha'n't a got half as much flavour as these 'ere lints," he exclaimed, bringing down his fist, with an angry thud upon the pile of nets before him.

We found we had grounded upon a shoal, and hastened to back off, but our skipper insisted on explaining the difference between Scotch and Yarmouth herrings. A number of the Yarmouth luggers sail in the early summer to take part in the Scotch fishery, usually selling their take at the nearest fishing port. The Dutch *Schuyts* and Yarmouth luggers—larger and more seaworthy boats—fish at a much greater distance from the land than the Scotch, whose

* We may add that pilchards which bear a great resemblance to herrings, vide Shakespeare:—"Fools are as like husbands as pilchards are to herrings,—the husband's the bigger."—may be distinguished by the same test. The dorsal fin of the pilchard being placed more forward than on the herring, if held up by it, it balances. This is also said by some Scotch writers to be the test of a well-fed Loch Fyne herring.

† The *Racehorse* came to an unlucky end shortly after. In a regatta in Yarmouth Roads, for fishing luggers with all their stores on board, a collision took place, and the *Racehorse* went down. As the boat was lost whilst not engaged in her ordinary avocation, payment of her insurance was resisted by the underwriters.

undecked boats and fewer nets, are only adapted for an inshore fishery, along the creeks and inlets. The deep sea fish are in much higher condition.* In the interval which elapses at Yarmouth between the midsummer and autumn fishery, large numbers of the North Country herrings are brought in, and the August fish particularly, are mazy, sickly, and full of spawn. However they may pickle, they smoke indifferently, and many which undergo this process inland, are barrelled and sold as Yarmouth bloaters and red herrings, to the serious detriment in reputation of the genuine articles. When fresh, the Scotch herring taken on the East coast—the staple article of their fishery—is a large, coarse, greasy, dry-flavoured fish. Let us take Mr. James Wilson's description of them.—

"In their natural state these fish may be divided into three classes, viz,—maties, full fish, and spent fish. Maties are those in which the roes and milts are distinctly but not largely developed, and this is the state in which they are in the highest order as food. Although they do not then exhibit so bulky an appearance as that of the full fish, they are in reality much fatter, for the bulk of the latter is deceptively produced by the great enlargement of the roe and milt; and this does not take place without a corresponding diminution of the body of the fish. The full fish, however, are those which are most sought after in a mercantile point of view, especially for the Irish market, because of their large size. They are also much more abundant than the others, or at least are captured in much greater quantities, as they are then congregated in much larger shoals, and also being nearer their spawning time, make closer approaches to the shore. The great north-eastern herring fishery of Scotland is mostly made up of full fish. It commences about the middle of July, and by the beginning of August is often general from the Tyne to Shetland. The earlier Dutch fishery contains more maties, and is carried on at a greater distance from the coast." ENCY. BRIT. Article, FISHERIES.

It would appear from this that the great bulk of the Scotch herrings are not in the best condition for food when captured. The estimates of their quality we proceed to quote, shall be taken from their own authorities. It is a subject, however, on which we should not have touched but for the extreme injustice with which Yarmouth has been treated by Scottish writers, most of whom, in discoursing of the British Herring Fisheries, have either studiously ignored or craftily disparaged it. A number of recent and glaring instances might be pointed out.

"It is very questionable," writes Dr. Robert Knox, in the *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh*, 1834, "if upon the eastern shores of Scotland, any considerable take of perfectly clean and prime conditioned herrings, and which are neither full nor shotten, ever takes place."

"The herrings caught by our fishermen," observes Mr. Mitchell, fish-curer, of Leith, in the *Edinburgh Quarterly Journal of Agriculture*, 1840, "close in-shore in August and September are

* Three centuries ago the Yarmouth fishery, like the Scotch of the present day lay near the shores. "The Hollanders swim like elephants, we wading like sheep, we keep the banks and shoals, whereas they are in the depth."
—THE TRADE'S INCREASE, by J. R. 1615.

generally ripe for spawning, and, therefore, those obtained between the Forth and Berwick-on-Tweed are considered the most inferior in quality of all the various kinds of Scottish herrings." Elsewhere he remarks—"The healthy herrings generally swim deep, and only the young, the full, and the sickly swim near the surface."

"In former times," writes Dr. MacCulloch, *Roy. Inst. Quarterly Journal of Science*, vol. 16, "the fishery on the East Coast did not commence until that on the West had terminated. It was then supposed, and not very unreasonably, that the fish had changed their ground, and that these were the western herrings. Yet it ought to have been plain that this was not the case, as the eastern fish were entirely different in quality from the western, and very far inferior."

Mr. James Wilson is the highest recognised authority upon the Scotch herring, and the fullest notices of it are to be found in his *Voyage Round the Coasts of Scotland*, 2 vols., 1842, undertaken at the request of the Fishery Board, to investigate and report upon the subject. Commencing his researches along the Western Coast, he dwells on the just reputation enjoyed by the finny tenants of its deep and land-locked waters. For the diminished numbers in which herrings are now met with on that side of Scotland, no satisfactory theory is established. The conjecture put forward by Mr. Wilson, that the beautiful scenery of those shores may possibly exercise some subtle and recondite physical influence upon their superior flavour, can hardly be seriously discussed. Approaching the scene of the great modern fishery of Scotland, he writes:—"The Caithness herrings are larger, coarser fish than the western, and seldom got in good condition after the end of August." * * * Coasting along the more eastern coast of Caithness to the great herring mart of Wick, "the deterioration becomes still more striking. The Wick herrings, though remarkable for their vast abundance and great size, are never equal, even in their best condition, to the smaller varieties of our western shores." During the week Mr. Wilson spent at Wick, August 11th to 16th, he observed "that the great congregated mass of eastern herrings had evidently commenced the act of spawning. 700 boats were discharging their captures every morning, and an examination of this vast collection from time to time, showed that the proportion of spawned fish was becoming greater every day."

Of the Shetland* herring, Mr. Wilson notes—they are almost

† A tribe of fat herrings known to fishermen, and caught off the Shetland Isles, were rejected by them as a food disagreeable and unwholesome. A decree of the States of Holland and West Friesland, in 1720, prohibits under a heavy penalty their introduction into the curing houses. See VALENCIENNES and QUATREFAGES.

"The Dutch fishermen had been accused of frequenting the banks and rocks on the Coast of Scotland, for the purpose of taking herrings for pickling. The herrings caught there were supposed to be of an inferior quality; and the intermixture of them with others was regarded as injurious to the general

equal to those of Loch Fyne in the early part of the season; but that few are taken at that time, owing to the engrossment of the people with the cod and ling fishery. When the actual herring fishery commences, "millions of them are speedily found in an exhausted and deteriorated condition, from the performance of the spawning process."

We pass on to describe more briefly the other fisheries of Yarmouth. One of the most important is the MACKEREL FISHERY. The theories in reference to the natural history and migrations of this fish, have been almost as conflicting as those upon the herring, like which it was supposed to swarm yearly from the Arctic Seas; but the observations of fishermen shew that its movements are rather from the south, northwards. It is taken off the Cornish coast in February and March; off Norfolk and Suffolk* throughout the months of May and June—the period when mackerel are esteemed to reach their highest perfection—along the North of Ireland from July to September; and arrives in August at the Shetland Islands, issuing probably in each instance from the deep waters to the shallow, for the purpose of spawning. Unlike the herring, it is found in large numbers in the Mediterranean.† Wherever met with, it is a restless, ever-trade of the kingdom in cured herrings. Accordingly an ordinance of the 4th April, 1824, commanded that "no Netherlands' fisherman should carry on the great or pickle-herring fishery, at a less distance from the Coast of Scotland than two leagues; nor on any pretence whatsoever (except in cases of urgent necessity), even to approach within a smaller distance of the Scotch Coast, while engaged in the pickle-herring fishery."—ANNUAL REGISTER, 1824.

"The herrings first, and towards the ending of summer, shoot out of the deeps, on both sides of Scotland and England; and begin to do first so, on the Scots Coast, at Midsummer, when is the first and worst fishing.

The second and best is about Bartholomew-tide, from Scarborough, in Yorkshire, till you come to the Thames mouth."—THE TRADE'S INCREASE, BY J. R. 1615.

* There have been instances of its appearance on the coast much later.

"Oct. 1, 1758.—The herring fishery at Yarmouth, Norfolk; has taken but 1200 barrels of herrings; whereas they usually by this time took above 20,000. Instead of herrings they have caught mackrell, which were sold just out of the boats for 3s. per 1000, and large mackrell at 12 and 14 a penny."—GENTLEMAN'S MAGAZINE.

† The mackerel of the Mediterranean is a small, insipid, indigestible fish, 'gravissimum alimentum,' according to Celsus. By the fish epicures of Ancient Rome it was disregarded, and was sold by fishmongers wrapped up in paper fit for no other use, hence arose the sarcasm launched at scribblers and poetasters, that their writings would be used for wrapping up mackerel. From its entrails, however, was made the most famous sauce of antiquity, named in Pliny's time the 'garum sociorum,' or allies' sauce, in compliment to the Spaniards then in alliance with Rome. It was sold at six thousand sesterces, or about £48 for a measure of two gallons, and is frequently alluded to by the Roman satirists.

wandering fish, and its pursuit attended with extreme uncertainty. Its usual length is about sixteen inches. It has a shape round and plump, tapering finely downwards to the tail, and forming a model of strength, speed, and elegance; its weight between one and two pounds; colour of the back, a varying blue shot with green, and traversed with cross bands of black, straight in the males, but undulating in the females; the belly and sides a pearly white with golden tinge, and reflecting tints of purple and crimson when freshly caught, but which rapidly pass away after death.

The luggers used in the herring fishery are also employed in that of the mackerel, with an additional mast, having fore, main, and mizen. We have already described the nets, which extend to more than twice the distance, are of finer twine, with wider mesh, and lie about half the depth in the water. The fishery is carried on in the same manner as that for herrings; but as the mackerel is not salted, and one of the most perishable of fish, great exertions have to be made to land it as early as possible after capture. For several seasons successively preceding 1862, the mackerel catch at Yarmouth was a failure, and thoroughly disheartened the fishermen—that year they were taken in large numbers, but at a most unusual distance from land—in fact, off the Dutch coast. Fast sailing cutters and large quantities of ice had to be brought into requisition.* The mackerel season, while it lasts, is one of great bustle and activity upon the beach, the high prices obtained for early cargoes, and the large returns sometimes made for the heavy catch of a single night, stimulating the crews to a strong emulation and rivalry. For many years past it has been the custom to put up at 'the Barking Smack Inn,' on the beach, the take of every boat, and no senior wranglership is perhaps more keenly coveted, than the post of honour at the head of this list.

The extrayagant prices formerly paid for early supplies of mackerel in the London market have been lowered by the levelling operation of the railways, which paralyse forestalling in fish by their almost hourly deliveries from every quarter of the kingdom. The highest price on record occurred in May, 1807, when the first boat load of mackerel from Brighton sold at Billingsgate for forty guineas per hundred of six score—seven shillings each—the next boat load producing but thirteen guineas per 100. The year following they were so plentiful at Dover, as to be sold at sixty for a shilling. The mackerel fishery on the East coast in 1821 was unprecedented. The value of the catch of sixteen boats from Lowestoft on the 30th of June, amounted to

* The mild winter of 1862-3 proved a serious embarrassment to the Yarmouth fishermen, depriving them of their accustomed supply of ice from the adjacent Broads, and they have been compelled to import large quantities from Norway and elsewhere. From its usual price of 10s. to 12s., it advanced to £1 per ton.

£5252, and it was estimated that altogether £14,000 was realised by owners and men in the fishery off the Suffolk coast, on that one day. The whole of the mackerel catch is sold by auction at the jetty immediately it is landed, at per hundred of six score. It is then rapidly washed, packed in 'peds,' (wicker baskets containing 60 fish), and dispatched by rail all over the kingdom.

In 1823, 142 lasts (a last of mackerel is 10,000) were taken during the season at Yarmouth. In 1825 the catch realised £17,000; in 1845, £35,000; in 1855, £30,000; 1863 was a good year, upwards of 200 lasts were taken, weighing 1200 tons, and averaging £1 per hundred of six score. The Lowestoft catch, a few years ago averaged about 50 lasts annually; latterly, from the unprofitable results of the venture, fewer boats have been engaged in it, the fishermen prosecuting in preference the spring and summer herring fishery.

Rough breezy weather is most favourable in the mackerel fishery, rousing the fish from the depths of the sea, and bringing them to the surface within reach of the nets—

"Next morn they rose and set up every sail;
The wind was fair, but blew a mackerel gale;*
The sickly young sat shivering on the shore,
Abhorred salt water never seen before,
And prayed their tender mothers to delay
The passage, and expect a fairer day."

DRYDEN'S HIND AND PANTHER.

The mackerel swims faster than any other small fish, and though shy, is a greedy fish. It is caught in large numbers by hand-lines baited with a strip of scarlet cloth; a more taking bait is a strip of flesh cut from the side of a mackerel; the line is thrown overboard a vessel in full sail, and towed rapidly along, a leaden plummet keeping it below the surface of the water. Few things are more exhilarating than this sport of 'railing,' as it is termed. in a sunny breeze, when

"Both current and ripple are dancing in light."†

* Dr. Johnson, in his Dictionary, has totally misconceived the meaning of the phrase 'a mack'rel gale,' explaining it as 'a strong breeze, such as is desired to bring mackerel fresh to market.'

† Directed by the movements of the gulls and puffsins we followed the mackerel, tacking or wearing the boat occasionally, when we found that we had overrun the shoal. For two hours we killed these beautiful fish as fast as the baits could be renewed and the lines hauled in; and when we left off fishing, actually wearied with the sport, we found that we had taken above five hundred. . . . There is not on sea or river, always excepting angling for salmon, any sport comparable to this delightful amusement; full of life and bustle, everything about it animated and exhilarating; a brisk breeze, a fair sky, the boat in quick and constant motion—all is calculated to interest and excite. He who has experienced the glorious sensations of sailing on the Western Ocean, a bright autumnal sky above, a deep green-lucid swell around, a steady breeze, and as much of it as the hooker can stand up to, will estimate the exquisite enjoyment our morning's mackerel fishing afforded."—WILD SPORTS OF THE WEST.

No fish spoils more rapidly with keeping, and it is in consequence exempted from the operation of the statute against Sunday trading. They were first allowed to be cried in the streets of London on a Sunday in 1698, and the practice still prevails—

“ Law ordered that the Sunday should have rest,
And that no nymph her noisy food should sell,
Except it were ‘new milk’ or mackerel.”—

• KING’S COOKERY.

A comparatively modern, but most important branch of the Yarmouth fisheries, is the **TRAWL FISHING**. At the beginning of the century it was but little followed here, the Barking Smacks enjoying for many years a virtual monopoly of the fishing grounds.* In 1853 sixty-five smacks from Yarmouth were engaged in it; now one hundred and twenty boats are at work night and day, all the year round, landing an enormous quantity of soles, haddocks, turbot, &c. A number of the Barking Smacks have lately been transferred to Yarmouth, and warehouses erected for their outfit and stores. Everywhere along the coast at home and abroad, trawling is largely on the increase, to supply the profitable markets yearly opened up by new lines of railway, and no mode of fishing has given rise to more angry controversy, from the alleged wholesale destruction of spawn and young fish it is charged with occasioning. At Yarmouth, no ill feeling prevails, trawling being rarely pursued within twelve miles of land, and frequently it is carried on sixty or seventy miles eastwards, in the Texel, and in sight of the Dutch shores.

The common practice of trawlers is to sail in fleets. The crews are engaged for a six weeks’ voyage, and dispatch their catch in fast cutters, direct to Billingsgate. A portion only, chiefly of the smaller owners, is landed and sent off by railway. In 1862, 9300 tons of trawl fish were forwarded by rail from Yarmouth, and 1250 tons from Lowestoft. From the careful manner in which the accounts have to be made up to adjust the proportions coming to owners, crews, and consignees, materials exist for an exact statement of the annual catch of Yarmouth and Lowestoft, and its value. Every package of fish transferred from the trawler to the cutter, or sent off by rail, has a metal tally with the boat’s name affixed, and a check ticket accompanies the consignment, specifying how many ‘trunks’ of soles, haddocks, plaice,

* “ We catch Thornbacks, Maids, and other flat fish on the sands, called the Brown Bank off Yarmouth, the Broad Fourteens, and Smith’s Knowl, where there is a prodigious quantity of fish. We have 40 sail at Barking constantly employed in that fishery, they sometimes bring such a quantity of fish to market, that they cannot be disposed of. They are sometimes sold as cheap as one shilling a basket of 20lbs. At this season, the Plaice, Maids, and Haddocks, are in prodigious quantities all the way from Lowestoft to the Dutch Coast. Soles will succeed them, and at the latter end of the year, Haddock.”—Evidence of Mr. Tyler, Fisheries Committee, A.D. 1800.

and whittings; how many 'doubles' of soles and 'peds' of soles, haddocks, plaice, offal, rooker, whittings, mixtures, dories, turbot, brills, skate, codfish, and mullets, were delivered on such a day to A B, salesman, Billingsgate, from the 'Greyhound,' by the cutter 'May Flower.'*

Trawling smacks are cutter-rigged, of about 60 tons, builder's measure, requiring to be very stoutly built amidships, to sustain the strain of the mainsail, with its heavy flapping to and fro, and the dragging action of the trawl nets, as the boat drives along under sail for many hours at a stretch, her broadside to the nets. Herring luggers are sometimes converted into trawlers, but the change is not found to answer, the wear and tear proving too severe for their lighter construction. The trawl net—'cet engine terrible' as a recent French writer on the fisheries proclaims it—is attached at its mouth to a large beam, upwards of thirty-six feet in length, and eight inches thick; the depth of the net is fifty feet; it is very stoutly made and well tarred, narrowing to a pocket or cod, into which the fish are swirled by the strong in-setting current, and sucked in without the power of retreat. The yawning void of the net's mouth, or 'bosom,' which is twenty feet across, is kept open by a heavy gaping jaw of wrought iron, a grim and rusty portal, forming a rounded arch, over which might be fitly incised—

"Per me si va nella città dolente :

• • • • •
Lasciate ogni speranza, voi che 'ntrate"—

A strong cable connects the net with the boat, and when the net is lowered, the wind performs the labour of dragging it along the sea bottom, the boat creaking on at from two to three miles an hour, the net being lowered and raised with every tide, the night time proving the most favourable. As fish in the tideway lie with their heads against the stream, the boat trawls with the tide, drawing the net down the stream. To empty the net, it is hauled up to the vessel's side by the trawl warp, the cod or pocket of the net is handed in, turned inside out, and the contents shaken out. All the suitable fish are sorted out, and the net is re-lowered, the refuse of the haul being thrown overboard.†

* 'Trunks' are flat wooden boxes; 'doubles' are a large size of the same. Offal and rooker are terms for the common fish, as plaice, whittings, &c.

† In the *Revue Contemporaine* for 1862 is an important article on the present condition of the Fisheries of France, by Lieut. Layrie. He describes the revolution created by the trawl. "The sole fishery of interest, which furnishes a continuous abundance of fish to our markets, is that which is carried on in the sea with good and substantial boats. The net generally in use is the trawl (*salut*). Figure to yourself an enormous sack, with an opening of from 10 to 15 metres, of an equal width throughout, kept open by a support (*vergue*), and dragging along the bottom with a weight of from 100 to 150 kilogrammes; attached to the side

The trawl net is best adapted for taking those fish that live upon, or very near the bottom. As it drags along, the ground rope first touches the fish, which dart upwards and are swept along to the end of the net. Arrived at the *cul de sac*, if the bewildered fish shoot back towards the mouth, they are carried by the strong current into an inner net, or 'poke,' twenty feet long, tacked on to the sides of the trawl, and that only opens backwards. Immense quantities of haddock* and of soles,† which, like the

of a craft, bow and stern, and borne along with the speed which a boat with sails outspread, and of a measurement of 35 tons can attain—such is the trawl. This engine is terrible, and leaves along its route furrows as deep as those of a plough, to which it has been often compared. Facts testify to its prowess. When one has seen upon the quays, ships' anchors dragged up by the trawl from the sea bed, where they have lain buried for years, one can form an idea of the effects which this net produces. Forbidden by our fathers as a destructive engine, crushing at once both fry and spawn, and putting to flight those species which come to seek the shelter of the land, the trawl has become to-day a veritable progress. Wherever the iron roads appear, bearing into the interior the products of the fishery, they call into action the trawl.

We have no longer to consider if for the public alimentation it would be advantageous to demand the suppression of this net. The trawl may be an evil, but it is an evil which one cannot destroy, and with which it has become necessary to treat. Along our coasts, the English, the Belgians, the Dutch, drag it throughout the year in the North Sea and in the Pas de Calais, and with them as with us, the tonnage of the boats augments each day in proportion to the markets created. The first effect of the trawl is to annihilate its opponents; everywhere where it has taken root, it has immediately killed off all its rivals, the little boats and small fishermen cannot live alongside the large craft which night and day drag without cessation a net capable of tearing up anchors. The struggle is summed up in some tattered nets, some plaints of the weak against the strong, and the small boats take refuge within the line of the three miles from the shore, which was exclusively reserved to them, to pass beyond it no more * * * To-day, this is the situation; wherever railways have secured a drain for the produce, the provisioning of the markets is effected by the trawl * * * On the north-west coast of France, railways have penetrated in every direction. The great markets of the interior have stimulated new armaments, larger tonnage,—the number of trawlers has increased, whilst that of the fishers with lines and stationary nets diminishes from day to day. At Dunkirk there are 60 trawl boats; at Calais, 84; at Boulogne, 100; at Treport, 53; at St. Valery-sur-Somme, 20; at Dieppe, 19; at Port-en-Bessin, 15; at Trouville, 109. These are chiefly the boats which supply the markets of Paris; they have excellent ports of refuge along the coast, and railways furnishing a rapid transit for the produce of their industry. These two instruments of progress assured, boats and men are soon found.

The Belgium trawlers are charged by the French with bringing to market their fish in a bruised unsaleable condition. Along the Dutch coast the bed of the sea is favourable to a removal of the fish uninjured by the trawl."

* "The Scarborough fishermen assert, that in rough weather haddocks sink down into the sand and ooze at the bottom of the sea, and shelter themselves till the storm is over; because in stormy weather they take none, and those caught immediately after, are covered with mud on their backs."

† By an ancient law of the Cinque Ports, no one was to take Soles from November 1, to March 15, neither was any one to fish from sun setting to sun rising; that the fish might enjoy their night food.

"London is supplied with Soles all the year round from the trawling boats of Barking, of which there are upwards of 150 belonging to different

majority of bearded fish, feed near the ground and swim in shoals, are captured in the trawl nets. Large numbers of soles and turbot are taken along the edges of that 'Tom Tiddler's Ground' of fishermen, the Doggerbank, and in the Wold lying off the Lincolnshire coasts. Nearer still to Yarmouth are some famous diggings, which have earned the distinction of appearing in the charts. The Silver Pit, the Sole Pit, the Great Silver Pit, and the Haddock Bank, all lie off Cromer. The take of red mullet is irregular. Mr. Paget notes that 10,000 were sent to the London market in one week, in 1831.

A destructive species of trawl fishing on a smaller scale, practised on the East Coast, is the stow boat fishery for sprats. The stow boat has two horizontal beams, the lower one, twenty-two feet long, is suspended a few feet above the bottom; the upper one, a foot shorter, hangs six fathoms above the lower. To these a large bag net is fixed, stretched open and kept square, the mesh of the net contracting finer as it approaches the end. The net is set under the boat's bottom, and so moored that the tide carries everything into it. The mouth can be closed when required. Several hundred boats of this description are in use.

On some parts of the coast there has been a feud of very old standing, between the sprat and herring fishers, the latter denouncing the former as wholesale destroyers of the herring fry.* To

companies. They fish the North Sea off the coast of York and Holland, particularly the Silver and Brown Banks. Smacks formerly brought their own catch to Billingsgate. Now, fast sailing cutters wait on them, and bring their produce to market packed in ice. Of these splendid craft which can sail almost in the eye of the wind, there are 46, and the number of seamen employed in them is 2000, the greater part taken as boys from the workhouse, and trained into first-rate seamen."—QUARTERLY REVIEW.

* Judging from the Statute Book, our forefathers seem to have entertained a salutary horror of drying up the sources of their fish supplies, and at an early period various enactments against the destruction of fish spawn were passed. Amongst others the following:—A. D. 1488-9, 4, Hen. VII, c. 21.—An Act for the Preservation of Fish. After reciting that previous statutes to preserve the brood of sea fish do not extend to havens and creeks, proceeds—"Howbeit it were full requisite and profitable to all the Commons of this our realm, and specially to our subjects and inhabitants nigh adjoining to the Naze and haven of Orford, in the County of Suffolk, within which there is yearly great multitudes of spawn and brood of all manner of fishes of the sea, and there would largely increase and multiply, if they might there be suffered to abide. But now it is so, that in late days for a singular covetise and lucre in taking of a few great fishes, certain persons have used to set and ordain certain boats, called stall boats, fastened with ankers, having with them such manner of unreasonable nets and limes, that all manner of fry and brood of fish in the said haven multiplied, is taken and destroyed, as well great fishes unseasonable as the said fry and brood to number innumerable, with the which fry and brood the said persons with part thereof feed their hogges, and the residue they put and lay it in great pits in the ground, which else would turn to such perilous infection of air that no person thither resorting should it abide and suffer, to the great hurt of all our liege people within this realm, and specially to the

this day, a current popular belief exists that the sprat is the young of the herring.* An Act was passed in 1860, suppressing trawling for herrings on the West Coast of Scotland. It was found to operate against the sprat fishers of the Firth of Forth, by entirely interdicting the nets with which they could alone catch sprats. The discontent excited led to an investigation by Dr. Lyon Playfair and Admiral Dundas, on the general character of Sprat Fishing, and on its probable effects on the Herring Fishery. In their Report, Jan. 1861, it is stated that—

“Sprats and Herrings do not consort together habitually. As a rule, the young herring keep to the rear and prefer deeper water. Heavy tides, in conjunction with a gale of wind, cause a mixture of the shoals of sprats and young herring, and then they are taken in common.

If the sprat fishery were always as clear of herrings as it is at present, there would be no reason for us to discuss this question. Now, the proportion of young herring to sprats does not exceed one to one hundred. But this might change to-morrow, by a high wind joined to the spring tides forcing the two shoals together. Again, at the end of February, as the days lengthen, the sprats go lower down, and below Queen's Ferry get abundantly mixed with young herring, and a large proportion are caught of herring fry at that time, whether the tides are heavy or not.

The mode of testing for the presence either of sprats or herring fry, is to draw an oar through the water, and the pressure of the small fish on the blade is felt. An experienced man can easily tell whether sprats or herrings strike his oar, from the increased resistance of the latter.

As the herrings are a greater size when sprats become scarce, ‘Mixed Herrings,’ that is large and small together, are taken by the sprat nets.

Proceeding next to discuss the question whether this occasional capture produces a national injury to the herring fishery, they decide in the negative. The total catch is but limited, and when it

inhabitants of Norfolk and Suffolk, and also causeth great scarcity of fish in that country where afore this time was wont to be great plenty.” It was ordained that “such nets and ingines” be not used under a penalty of ten pounds, half to go to the informer, to be levied by Justices of the Peace of the said Counties.

A. D. 1558-9, Act. 1, Eliz., c. 17. An Act for the Preservation of Spawn and Fry of Fish, commences—“Which heretofore hath been made destroyed in Ryvers and Streames salte and freshe within this Realme, in so much that in dyvers places they feede Swynes and Dogges with the fry and spawne of fishe, and otherwise (lamentable and horrible to be reported,) destroye the same, to the great hynderance and decaye of the commonwealthe, &c.”

See also Note, page 275.

* The ghost of the ‘sprat and young herring’ controversy appears extremely difficult to lay, if we may judge from recent indications. A writer in the Cornhill Magazine, vol. 4, clings resolutely to their identity. ‘As to the serrated belly,’ the common test applied to the sprat, he asserts, ‘we might look upon it as we do upon the tucks of a child's frock, viz., as a provision for growth.’ Still later, another writer, in Macmillan's Mag., for March, 1863, avows a similar belief, quoting in the same paragraph, the announcement of a modern wonderful naturalist that “the eel is the product of a beetle.” Ray was led into the error of describing the sprat as the fry of the herring, in his edition of ‘Willoughby de Piscibus, 1686,’ by the fishermen of Cornwall, who give the name of sprat to the fry both of the herring and pilchard. The true sprat is very rare on that coast.

is compared with the wholesale yearly capture of herrings full of spawn, a destruction which must be injurious to the multiplication of the fish,* it becomes utterly insignificant. They recommend in conclusion,—

“that it is desirable to give relief to the fishermen, by allowing them to fish for sprats as freely as they are allowed to fish for them off Yarmouth, and other places in England.”

Sprat fishing is not followed at Yarmouth, the scene of the fishery extending from Lowestoft southwards, incredible numbers being taken on the Essex coast. They are brought to Yarmouth to be cured bloater fashion, salted very lightly for a couple of minutes, and packed in ‘kids’—little flat wood barrels—holding 4lbs., and selling at 3d. to 4d. per lb. They are sometimes pickled, and are little inferior to the anchovy, but the bones will not corrode like those of the latter.

A number of bum-boat men are occupied all the year round, prosecuting an inshore fishery, in rowing-boats, manned by three hands, capturing with hand lines and small nets skate, whiting, and flat fish, &c., the produce finding a sale in the local markets.

The shrimpers, with their little fleet of miniature cutters, help to enliven the marine panorama of Yarmouth Roads. They number upwards of fifty craft, each usually manned by a man and boy. A small trawl net of fine mesh is employed, the season commencing in March and continuing to September. Shrimp-eaters are aware of the superior flavour of the red over the brown, or the flat-nosed species. Both are taken here in large numbers, the latter chiefly in the Breydon Water, the Harbour, and along-shore. The locality of the red shrimp fishery was accidentally discovered about sixty years ago, by some beachmen engaged in ‘sweeping’ the Roads for lost anchors. We have no means of estimating the quantity landed, but it must be very large. Mr. Mayhew, in his *London Labour and the London Poor*, states the quantity of shrimps annually sold at Billingsgate to be 500,000,000 and of these 770,000 pints (324 to the pint) are hawked in the streets of London. “These last are chiefly the Yarmouth prawn shrimps, sold at from 9d. to 10d. per gallon; the best shrimps, from Lee, in Essex, fetching from 10d. to 2s. 6d. per gallon.”

Oyster dredging was formerly carried on in the Roads. Smelts of delicious flavour are caught in the Breydon Water. Mussels (the favourite haddock bait) are found in the Haven. Specimens more or less numerous, of many of the rarer fish are taken in the fishermen’s nets, or thrown on shore in rough weather—in short, along

* The Commissioners, whilst adopting the common estimate of twenty thousand, quote the observations as to the number of ova in the spawn of the common herring, given by Sir John Richardson, in his *Ichthyology*. He there states that he found 68,606 ova in a specimen examined.

this coast the womb of Nature teems with plenty, and the fields of ocean are white with a perpetual harvest—

‘*Maris immensi prolem genus omne natantum,*’

supplying to a thoughtful observer inexhaustible subjects of interest.

Statistics of the Yarmouth and Lowestoft Fisheries.

“With your fishery and herrings you’ve kept a strange fuss,
But pray tell me, John, how many **SMACKS** make a **BUSS**.”—OLD SONG.

Political economy, as our generation understands the term, is a modern science, differing largely from that formerly affected as an exclusive prerogative by sovereigns and their ministers, and which busied itself, under the guise of a paternal despotism, with incessant interference and regulation of trade, controlling production, enforcing prices, and dictating profits. It had its little inconsistencies, and the consciences of weak subjects were scandalised by the spectacle of rulers, who, whilst engaged in denouncing all speculation as the wicked crime of forestalling, never scrupled to enrich themselves and cripple commerce by patents, monopolies, and vexatious restrictions. Not that the public were in advance of their statesmen—the trading spirit of the middle ages was essentially one of selfish and rigid monopoly, as evidenced in the jealous rules and mysteries of the guilds and corporations. The legislation, by turns capricious, partial, contradictory, and oppressive, which proceeded from this mutual ignorance of the sources from which the prosperity of the community and of the individual alike flow, has clung to the Statute Book down to our own time, and probably nothing tended more to prolong this injurious condition of affairs, than the absence of accurate statistics. No Parliamentary feature of this age is more beneficial than the production and multiplication of figures, to enforce, illustrate, or condemn the practical operation of our laws and enactments; and this potent auxiliary in the art of governing has been developed to its present perfection, mainly by the facilities afforded by rapid locomotion and intercommunication. It is one of the many subtle revolutions effected by the great magician—steam.

No branch of industry has sustained more injury from the circulation of loose, imperfect, and erroneous statistics than the fishery.

The exaggerated figures of the Dutch Fishery, which continued to dazzle the eyes of Europe long after the reality had passed away, originated that mania for the establishment of fishing companies, which for nearly two hundred years possessed this country—a mania which repeated failures appeared powerless to deter, until several millions had been engulfed. The speculation for which this industry has been proverbial has arisen from the optimist propensity of human nature to fix its eyes on the contemplation of the years of plenty and to ignore the years of famine, although the latter are found to recur with more frequency than the former.

Considering the great antiquity of the Yarmouth herring fishery, and the place it has occupied in our statutes, it is surprising how meagre are its statistics. To the freedom which from the outset it has enjoyed, the Yarmouth fishery owes the paucity of its records. Had the net of taxation been drawn round it, there would have been no lack of returns. We have already given the accounts of it from eye witness, published by Gentleman and Defoe, at the commencement of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and Nashe's, written in the sixteenth, will be found in our appendix. We shall proceed to draw from Parliamentary proceedings, which form the most accurate and trustworthy materials of information.

In the earliest annals of the Yarmouth fishery we do not hear much of a merchant class. The repair, refit, and provisioning of the fleets of all the neighbouring shores, yearly attracted for six weeks to its great Herring Fair, added to the commerce carried upon the rivers inland, must have built up this class. For several centuries the fish buyers are described as being the 'hosts' who lodged the fishermen, and who found a market for their purchases in the interior. As the intercourse between England and her French provinces increased, the shipping trade of Yarmouth expanded. The trade of the middle ages was to a great extent one of barter, and there was a considerable interchange between the fishermen of Yarmouth and the wine-growing districts of Guienne, through the ports of Rochelle and Bordeaux. In the reign of John, a last of herrings and a tun of French wine, were of an equivalent value. None of our early sovereigns took a greater interest in the Yarmouth fishery than Edward III. In 1358 we read of fifty lasts purchased and shipped at Portsmouth for the use of the army and fleet in France.* This intercourse between Yarmouth and the South of France continued almost without interruption for centuries, until the war with Napoleon, and the imposition of duties virtually prohibitory, extinguished the consumption of French wine in England. Salt was a large and regular import from Rochelle.

Next to Edward III no English sovereign is more identified

* Knox's View of the British Empire, 2 vols., 1785.

with the welfare of Yarmouth, than Queen Elizabeth. Her great and repeated benefactions to the town in aid of the maintenance of the haven we have recorded, and her royal gift of an admiralty jurisdiction. Her interest extended to the fisheries, and several enactments to promote it appeared during her reign. An important act in its results to Yarmouth was that of A.D. 1562-3, 5 Eliz., c. 5.—For the express encouragement and increase of the navy, it was enacted, among other ordinances, that the Queen's subjects might export and import herring, and other sea fish, taken by any* of her subjects aforesaid, free of customs. They were, however, forbidden to buy any fresh herring from foreigners, unless in case of shipwreck; and no fish were to be carried coast-wise in foreign bottoms. Fishermen were to be permitted to take apprentices, and were exempted from serving as mariners* or soldiers. Wednesdays were ordered to be fish days like as Saturdays, and all persons eating flesh on fish days without license, were to forfeit £3 for every offence. French wines were to be imported only in English ships.

As the relations between England and Spain grew more hostile, increased anxiety was manifested to strengthen our navy. To accomplish this, the chief political recipe of statecraft amongst European nations has hitherto been the expansion of the fisheries, the nursery and training-school of seamen. In 1580-1, 23 Eliz., c. 7, appeared—“*An Act for the increase of Mariners, and for the Maintenance of Navigation.*” Whereas, the merchants and fishmongers of the realm have gone and sent into foreign realms, and there ingrossed great numbers of fish, in goodness far inferior to the fish taken by Englishmen, and have victualled this realm with foreign fish, by reason whereof, and of the eating of flesh on fish days there be lately decayed 200 sail and more of good ships—for redress whereof, be it enacted, that no subject or denizen import foreign cured fish or herrings on penalty of forfeiture. English owners of ships may export fish purchased by foreigners. Foreign salt fish (cod and ling, termed stock-fish) imported, was to pay duties.”

* The harsh and cruel operation of the pressgang, with its train of frightful abuses, exercised upon the fisheries a most injurious influence, although it has been very lightly passed over by writers on the subject. It was most onerous throughout the Stuart and Commonwealth period, attaining a climax in our wars with Napoleon. One of the bounties offered by our early sovereigns to promote the fisheries, was exemption from impressment. Any sudden call for seamen, however, fell upon the fishermen, as the class most accessible. The injuries arising from impressment of the merchant service are described in a scarce pamphlet, ‘*Encouragement for Seamen,*’ by George Everitt, Shipwright, 1695. Seamen “after a long and tedious voyage, without recruit or money, are forced on board ship in a poor and ragged condition, which is one main occasion of distempers on board the fleet. Some commanders, if denied their unreasonable demands for light or convoy money from merchant ships, do often cause the seamen to be impressed, whereby such ships are too often disabled, and with the small and helpless number of men left on board, do often miscarry or perish at sea.”

By the first of these statutes the Queen gave to the fishermen of her coasts full liberty to import and export their own catch, duty free, together with an exclusive possession of the home market for their fresh herrings; but the object of this and previous enactments being to create fishermen, and not fish dealers, the prohibitions of her father against the purchase of fresh fish from foreigners on the seas were continued.* By the second, foreign cured fish or herrings were altogether shut out of the English market, a monopoly of it being given to the native fishermen.

The most important fishery of England then, as now, was Yarmouth, and no town in the kingdom profited more largely by the provisions of the foregoing enactments. The activity and enterprise of its burgesses was aroused. They lost no time in availing themselves of the new markets opened up to their commodities, and to such an extent were their energies directed into these new channels of trade, that twenty years later it occasioned an outcry from the home markets, which led to fresh legislation; and the insight which the wording of the new statute affords us of the Yarmouth fishery, at perhaps its palmiest moment, is of special value and interest. It was during this golden age of the old town that many of those brave buildings were erected along its quay, which excited the admiration of Lord Burleigh, Nashe, Defoe, and subsequent visitors.

A.D., 1584-5, 27 Eliz., c. 15. *An Act for bringing in of staple Fish and Herrings into this realm*, recites that divers fishing towns in Norfolk and Suffolk formerly transported and brought very many herrings and much fish to York, Boston, Grimsby, Hull, and other towns, whereby the North Country hath been well served, and at reasonable prices, till of late the said fishing towns were set at liberty to transport their herrings to what realm or kingdom they would, to sell at their pleasure, without subsidy or custom to your majesty, so that whereas they did yearly bring to the four places aforesaid not less than a thousand lasts of white and red herrings, with great quantity of salt fish, besides great quantity of herrings to divers towns of the North Coast, wherewith Yorkshire, Lincoln, Notts, Derby, Cheshire, Lan-

* A.D. 1541-2, 33 Hen. VIII. c. 2. After reciting the advantages of fishermen to sea-coast towns, declares 'that many and divers English fishermen for lucre do learn the craft of fishing, and be confederate with Picards, Flemings, Normans, and Frenchmen, and sometime sall over to their coast, and sometime meet them half the sea over, and there for readie money do buy fresh fish from the said strangers, which if they did not so, the same would bring the fish over themselves, and sell "much better chepe, and for less money," if the same boats and people of this realm would not regrave the said fish. Be it enacted, it proceeds, that no English denizen buy fresh fish from any strangers in foreign parts, nor on the sea, to put the same to sale within this realm, on pain of forfeiting for every time £10. Foreigners were declared at liberty to bring their fish to our ports for sale without let or hindrance.

cashire, Cumberland, Westmoreland, Northumberland, and Durham, were well served with herrings and staple fish, and at reasonable prices; and now they bring none, or a few, so that the fish have grown to excessive prices, and will be greater, for that the said coastmen do ship their red herrings to Zealand, and both red and white herrings for Rouen, Nantes, Rochelle, Bordeaux, and other places in the realm of France; besides that a great number is shipped and transported by their merchants for Portingale, and within the Straites of Morocko for Italy, so that the North parts of this realm, being far from the sea, have great scarcity of fish and herrings, and shall have greater, unless some present remedy be had for the same. "May it please your Majesty," it prays "that it may be lawful for your subjects to bring into this realm from the parts beyond the seas, in English ships, sailed by English mariners, herrings, staple fish, and ling to the towns aforesaid, or to any town or creek in the North parts."

The prayer of the petitioners was complied with, and it was enacted accordingly.

Thirteen years later a sudden change took place. 1597-8, 39 Eliz., c. 10. An Act for repealing 23 Eliz., c. 7, recites that it was hoped the previous act would have excited the fishermen of this realm to employ themselves to fishing and to the building and preparing of boats and shipping to that purpose, as that they should long ere this time have been able to victual this realm with fish of their own taking, without any supply of aliens and strangers, to the increase of mariners and maintenance of the navigation. Whereas it is found this last is no whit bettered by that act, nor any mariners increased, or like to be, but contrary, the natural subject not being able to furnish the tenth part of the same with salted fish of their own taking, the chief provision being since the statute in the power of aliens, who thereby have enriched themselves and impoverished the native subject of the realm, serving the market by little and little, till the price be raised to their liking, our merchants being barred in their trade, and the navigation impaired, and the price of fish enhanced. For remedy whereof, it being lawful both to our subjects and to aliens, to carry away and export fish taken in this realm, and being very unequal that our subjects should not be at liberty to bring in also foreign provision of fish, as well as to carry out, but that the stranger should be wholly trusted therewith,—Be it enacted, that the statute made in the 23rd year of our reign be wholly repealed. English shipowners might still export fish to friendly countries on payment of the customs, and foreigners were to pay duties on their fish brought into this realm, similar in amount to those charged on English fish in the ports from whence the said foreign fish were shipped. Unsound imports of salt fish to be forfeited.

The causes which led to this reversal of all the earlier legislation of the Queen's reign, we have not succeeded in unravelling. The Armada had perished, and with its utter rout and ruin probably the immediate motives for stimulating the fisheries passed away, to be succeeded by one of Elizabeth's fits of parsimony.* We learn from Pepys that between the wreck of the Armada in 1588 and the close of the Queen's reign, in 1603, the quantity of shipping and number of seamen belonging to the kingdom decreased no less than a third.† The fisheries of Yarmouth and the East Coast appear to have suffered by the change, and to have fallen into that decayed condition described by Tobias Gentleman in 1614, which we have already quoted. Abandoned by their own government, they were exposed to a disastrous competition with the fisheries of the Dutch, at the period of their highest development, and when the entire energies of that nation and its rulers were devoted to their support and extension.

Quitting for a moment the herring fishery, we must briefly notice a branch of the Yarmouth fishery now extinct. At the commencement of the 16th century the cod fishery of Newfoundland was commenced. In 1517 about fifty Spanish, French, and Portuguese ships were engaged in it, the first attempt of the English to enter upon it occurring in 1536. In 1548, 2 & 3, Ed. VI., c. 6, it is enacted that, whereas for a few years past there had been levied by the officers of the Admiralty, from merchants and fishermen resorting to Iceland, Newfoundland, Ireland, and other places commodious for fishing, "divers great exactions, as sums of money, doles or shares of fish, and other like things, to the great discouragement and hindrance of the same merchants and

* Camden, describing the efforts of Queen Elizabeth to equip a powerful fleet, writes—"neither had she occasion to hire ships from Hamburgh, Lubeck, Dantzic, Genoa, and Venice, which was her predecessor's case. The wealthier inhabitants of the Sea Coast did likewise follow the Queen's example in building ships of war with all imaginable cheerfulness, insomuch that in a little time the Queen's fleet, in conjunction with her subjects' shipping, was so potent that it was able to furnish out twenty thousand men for sea service." The ships built by private individuals were merchant ships, liable to be pressed into the Queen's service when required.

† In 1572 the English navy mustered 146 ships of all sizes, carrying from 100 guns to 6; of these only 13 belonged to the crown. The fleet fitted out in 1588 to encounter the Armada consisted of 181 ships, manned by 11,120 men, and comprised 34 men of war, 18 private adventurers from the Thames, 33 ships furnished by the city of London, 43 hired ships, and 53 coasters, supplied by various sea-ports. Each of the Queen's ships carried about 300 men, and those hired about 110.

† As a result of the continuance of this policy by her successor, we read in Tobias Gentleman's pamphlet of 1614, "It is not unknown that this last year there was a general Press along the Coast of England, from Hull to St. Michael's Mount in Cornwall, only for sailors to furnish but seven ships, for the wafting over the Count Palatine and his most noble Princess but twenty-eight leagues."

fishermen, and no little damage to the whole commonweal," all such exactions should henceforth cease. Manship writes of Yarmouth, in 1619, "the town doth yearly set to sea, (viz., to Iceland and the North Seas,) for killing of cod fish and linga, about 123 sail of ships and vessels, which do *communibus annis* kill not so few as 500,000 fish. The fishery attained its maximum in the reign of Charles I, when 160 vessels were employed off the Coast of Norway, and 20 sailed annually to Iceland. This fishery was greatly injured during the Civil War, when the shipping of the town was harrassed by the privateers of the King. In 1643 the Iceland barks were captured, only three escaping.* It survived the interruptions occasioned by the war with Holland, to expire at the commencement of the eighteenth century, under the harrassing and vexatious operation of the salt duties. At the present moment although the cod fishery is brought within a short distance from Yarmouth, being now carried on chiefly upon the Dogger Bank, we believe there is not a single vessel from the town exclusively engaged in it. A few trawling smacks fish in the season off the Bank for cod, haddock, &c., with handlines.

In 1693 whale fishing was first prosecuted by English Adventurers off Cape Breton, and at Spitsbergen, in ships larger and of better construction than any of their rivals. From fifteen to twenty ships, sailing from Yarmouth, were at one time engaged in it, their numbers dwindling down at the close of last century to two or three. The last two, the Norfolk and Trelawney, are still remembered by the present generation.

It is worthy of remark that Manship, writing of the town about the period when Tobias Gentleman's pamphlet appeared, makes no mention of a depressed state of the fisheries. He gives no enumeration of the boats engaged in the herring and mackerel fishery; but describes fifty or sixty sail of ships that trade into Italy, the Straights, France, Spain, Flanders, Zealand, Holland, Denmark, Norway, and Russia, which carry forth and bring in merchandize of great value. Moreover, several thousands set to work, especially smiths, shipwrights, coopers, cordwainers, ropers, hoop-makers, spinsters of twine, knitters, or (as we call them) braiders of nets, bakers, and brewers, besides an infinite number of poor people, who do labour in the very business itself, as in carrying and drying of fish, salting, barrelling, drying, and packing of herrings."

Throughout the Stuart period, the Yarmouth fishery continued in a drooping condition; the Civil Wars under Charles I, and the

* In 1688 Charles II made a yearly grant to the town of one hundred and sixty pounds, payable out of the beer excise, as an encouragement for prosecuting the North Sea Fishery, and in 1702 the Fisherman's Hospital was erected by the Corporation, and endowed by it with this grant, which continued to be received until the abolition of the Beer Act.

Dutch Wars under Cromwell and Charles II, depriving it of the security needed for the prosecution of so precarious an industry. From this time forward, to the close of the war with Napoleon, convoys of armed vessels, termed 'wafters,' were in frequent request by the authorities of the town to protect the fishing boats. These wafters had been paid at the entire cost of the town in the middle ages, the charge being defrayed by rates upon the boats, or by levies upon the 'hosts.' At a later period, Government, from time to time, on petition of the town's authorities, placed ships of war upon the coast during the mackerel and herring seasons.

From the correspondence of Sir Thomas Browne, the Norwich physician, with his sons, several particulars of the Yarmouth fishery, at the period of the Restoration, are to be gleaned. We find the town was an established route to the Continent, many English travellers, on their journey to or from the grand tour which was deemed necessary to complete the education of an accomplished gentleman, making use of the port and its shipping. Sir Thomas, writing in 1667, instructs his son to forward his trunk to Rochelle or Bordeaux, to be sent home by the vintage ships. Sack and Rhenish are continually alluded to as the beverages in daily use, and vessels are described as regularly freighted to Yarmouth with the light wines of the South of France.* In August, 1668, his son Edward sets out for a long course of travel, *via* Yarmouth, to Rotterdam, "leaving the St. Nicholas Sands, and afterwards the Nowl, (which is a new sand,) on the starboard side," Sir Thomas, writing to him at Vienna, in December, mentions that "a Yarmouth man just now tells me that about ninety vessells, great and small, went out this yeare to other partes with red herrings."†

The 'Deep Sea Herring Fishery' commenced in 1787. This was the period when the mania for Bounties and Associations to prosecute the fishing after the methods of the Dutch was at its height. In consequence of the bounties offered by 26, Geo. III., for deep sea fishing, four vessels were fitted out for it as an experiment, by Messrs. Shelley and Walker, of Yarmouth, and

* Thomas Browne visited Cogniac, or Cognac, "a very pleasant town on the Charente;" from thence, he writes, "cometh the Cognac wine, whereof we drink in England in the summer."

† In L'Abbé's Moreri's *Grand Dictionnaire Historique*, folio, Paris, 1749, we find the following:—"In 1652 there was a dispute between the Dutch and the Merchants of London, on the subject of the sale of herrings. Owing to this, they of Yarmouth commenced sending vessels to Leghorn, and extended by degrees their transactions to all parts, insomuch that it became the chief port of all the Eastern Coast of England."

We have been unable to meet with any confirmation of the above. Manuscript, A.D. 1619, commends a Mr. John Giles, a worthy and grave alderman of Yarmouth, "who was the first and principal merchant that brought the trade of Leghorn herrings from Calais to this town of Yarmouth, whereby it hath not a little flourished, and therefore well deserveth remembrance."

Y

another by Mr. John Sayers.* The number gradually increased, and henceforward the Yarmouth luggers were built of a strength and stowage greater than any other vessel engaged in the fisheries of Great Britain. More than a hundred proceed now every year to fish off our northern coasts at the commencement of the season.

The Yarmouth coast has always been a favourite resort of the Dutch and French fishermen. In 1751, 250 Dutch busses of 80 tons and 14 men. caught here an average of 20 lasts each, and 120 Scheveningen boats of 30 tons, and 6 to 8 men, caught 900 lasts; 120 French boats, of 100 tons, caught 3000 lasts; making a total of 8,900 lasts, the value, at £20 per last, being £178,000,†

We have now reached the comparative *terra firma* of Government statistics—the system of bounties given during the latter half of the last century, and the commencement of this necessarily employing a number of officials in verifying the catch. The *Reports of the Parliamentary Committees*, which sat in 1785, 1786, 1798, and 1800, to inquire into the state of the British fisheries, contain some of the most valuable information we possess of the herring fishery, and their extreme rarity induces us to quote from them at some length.

The Committee of 1785 sat to investigate the complaints proceeding from every point of the coast, against the vexatious and embarrassing operation of the salt laws. The duty on English salt used in the cure of fish for exportation, was 1200 per cent., the cost of a ton being £1, and the duty £12, whilst the duty on foreign salt bore a still higher proportion to the prime cost of the article. Government sought to relieve the fisheries by allowing the use of salt duty-free in the cure of fish for export; but the regulations devised to prevent fraud and to supervise the fisheries at every stage were so intricate, as to paralyse them.

The first witness called was Mr. John Shelley, ship-owner, of Yarmouth, who described the incessant interference of the excise. He added that “forty years ago there was a cod fishery carried on from Yarmouth upon the coast of Iceland, which employed about 200 vessels. They fitted out in April, and returned in August to engage in the herring fishery. The reason that fishery is not now carried on is, that except in the fishery for herrings, the duty for all the salt not expended in the curing of fish must be paid, or the salt destroyed.” This evidence was confirmed by

* From some misconception, payment of the premiums were withheld—a grievance frequently complained of in the evidence given before the Parliamentary Committee.

† YARMOUTH, Sept. 23, 1752.—The back of our sands is lined with above 300 French busses, who take the best of the ground, and, to prevent our fishers coming to it when they have fished, cast anchor there. The French busses are of 100 tons and upwards, and carry 30 or 35 hands each, so that they have nine thousand sailors at this time on our coast.—GENTLEMAN'S MAGAZINE.

Mr. John Sayers and Mr. James Walker, merchants, of Yarmouth. Dr. Anderson, and other Scotch witnesses, pointed out the grievances, inconsistencies, and absurdities of the excise regulations, which, instead of being uniform, varied in amount in England, Ireland, and Scotland, whilst in the Isle of Man salt was duty free.

The Committee, in making a first Report to the House of Commons, admitted the hardships of the law, and its depressing action on the fisheries; but professed themselves unable to devise any effective mode of relief, if the salt duties were to be continued. A second Report of the same year, recommended some slight modifications in the excise regulations.

The third report of 1785—a very lengthy document—contains further evidence from Yarmouth. Mr. John Shelley was called upon to describe the mode of conducting the red herring fishery, and we abridge from his statement a few points of interest.

“Each vessel carries from 90 to 100 nets, replaced by others during the season, each vessel having two sets of nets, the length of a net being 20 yards on the lint, and 6 in depth; their value, a guinea and a half each. They are fastened by 6 warps of 120 fathoms each, valued at six guineas each. The vessels are from 30 to 50 tons, carrying 9 men and 1 boy upon an average. The wages for each voyage may be estimated at £40, and the provisions at £30, and £1 is paid to the fishermen for each last they catch.

“The fishing ground is situate ten leagues from the north of Yarmouth, to the South of the Foreland, on the Banks of Flanders. It begins about the 21st September, and continues till the 25th November. The nets when shot, are carried by the tide from seven to ten miles. The fishermen in about two hours after they have shot their nets, look on, as they call it—that is, heave the warp by the capstan. If there are but a few fish, they throw the nets out again, and drive two hours longer, then look on again, and continue alternately driving and looking on until morning, unless they complete their quantity of fish sooner, or unless the dog fish should rise, in which case they draw their nets in as fast as possible; then set one mast and one sail and go about a mile or two from the place, and shoot their nets again; and this is repeated sometimes thrice in a night, the capstan frequently rolling eighteen miles. The best nights for fishing are those in which the weather is the roughest, except the storm is violent indeed, which gives the English an advantage over the Dutch, who are afraid to drive at those times.”

After describing the curing, similar to the present mode, he adds:—

“Each barrel contains 1000 herrings, and for the last twenty-three years they have sold at about 24s. per barrel. The number of vessels employed in this fishery from Yarmouth and Lowestoft, in the year 1760, was 205. In 1783 it was reduced to 94; at this time there are about 100.”

“Yarmouth could supply without inconvenience from 700 to 800 seamen from the fishery, and in an emergency 1000 to 1500 could be impressed. Upwards of 90 have been impressed in a single morning, even after the impress had been established a considerable time.

“The wages of an able seaman is £4 10s. per season, and those of a green man, £4.

“A chief cause of the decline of the Yarmouth fishery was the great loss it sustained in 1760, which amounted to upwards of £19,000, and the great advance in the price of cordage, netting, &c. Its average profit for the past 20 years has not been £2 per cent.”

Mr. John Sayers, when called before the Committee, gave a very dismal picture of its condition:—

"The very heavy losses since 1760 had caused many bankruptcies; their stock was not now worth more than a fourth of its prime cost. The fishery could not exist if it were not held up by the different traders who supplied the outfit, such as grocers, coopers, smiths, &c. That the coast is so troubled with dog fish, that the expense in nets only, is more than double what it was twenty years ago, and that the property valued in 1760 at £160,000 would not realise at this time £40,000. The outfit of the foreign fisheries is 25 per cent. cheaper than ours. The Irish have at this time agents in Yarmouth to engage people to settle there for the cure of red herrings."

Mr. Stephen Godfrey, of Yarmouth, gave evidence on the mackerel fishery.

"It employs fifty vessels of from twenty to forty tons, carrying nine or ten men and a boy. Each boat has twelve score nets, each twenty yards on the lint, seventeen yards on the rope, and four yards in depth. It has fifteen warps, value £8 each; the value of the nets being £15 per score. The fishery begins on May 4th, and ends July 8th, the fishing ground being ten leagues from Yarmouth, east north-east. The catch is brought in every morning, the fish sold for the London market being transhipped without landing to small vessels, except early in the season when it is dispatched in carts. The average catch per boat weekly is about £25, the value per hundred varying from three guineas to ten shillings. The men employed are all adventurers, their wages very low, their chief profit that of the venture. The mackerel fishery is on the increase, but its chief advantage is the keeping the men employed before the herring season commences. Mackerel boats run to London in from twenty to thirty hours."

Mr. James Walker, of Yarmouth, complained of the competition of the Swedish herrings, brought into the foreign markets at a much lower price for labour and materials.

"Last year he bought of Yarmouth red herrings all the fish caught in 40 sail of vessels, amounting to £13,000, but found on their arrival at the Italian markets, that the cargoes from Dieppe and other foreign ports materially affected their sale."

"The operation of the act for preventing smuggling, passed last session, has materially affected the people on the coasts of Norfolk and Suffolk, and deprived so many of their former means of subsistence, that they are now offering themselves for employment to the owners of ships, especially to those in the fisheries."

Appended to the third Report, of 1785, are a number of tables, from which we extract the statistics relating to Yarmouth. The first is an *Account of the Salted British Herrings, taken for Home Consumption, from the year 1750 to 1760*. We give the figures in millions, omitting the odd figures—1751, 9½ millions; 1752, 12½; 1753, 5½; 1754, 11; 1755, 16; 1756, 17½; 1757, 21½; 1758, 4; 1759, 9; 1760, 2; 1761, 3½; 1762, 7½; 1763, 4½; 1764, 8½; 1765, 6; 1766, 4½; 1767, 7½; 1768, 7; 1769, 5; 1770, 10; 1771, 5; 1772, 11; 1773, 16; 1774, 12½; 1775, 7½; 1776, 8½; 1777, 4½; 1778, 6½; 1779, 9; 1780, 3; 1781, 3½; 1782, 7½. These figures—which do not include the herrings sold fresh in the home market, the white herrings (pickled), nor the cured herrings exported—give a total to Yarmouth several

times larger than all the other English ports combined. The returns of 28 towns are given, Liverpool standing second, and fluctuating from half a million to six millions; the returns of London, Hastings, and Dover following next in magnitude.

Appendix No. 8 gives an *Account of Red Herrings exported and entered for Home Consumption, for 44 years, in the port of Yarmouth*. From this table we have selected 12 years, giving the maximum and minimum returns spread over the whole period.

Year.	Red Herrings Exported.	Red Herrings paid duty for Home Consumption.	Totals of Barrels.
	Barrels.	Barrels.	
1739....	41,133	10,726	51,859
1743....	19,267	4391	23,658
1746....	53,313	8777	62,090
1750....	21,570	2531	24,101
1752....	56,645	12,678	69,323
1755....	53,470	15,952	69,422
1756....	53,994	17,879	71,873
1758....	13,419	3883	17,302
1760....	5647	1985	7632
1773....	41,303	15,547	56,850
1777....	6042	4596	10,638
1782....	17,024	1778	18,802

The average total on the 44 years being 35,000 barrels. These figures illustrate the extraordinary fluctuations in the fishery.

Four Reports from the Committee were issued in 1786, three in 1798, a further one in 1799, and two in 1800. Mr. Samuel Hobbins was deputed by the merchants of Yarmouth to represent them before the committee of 1798, and we extract the material part of his evidence:—

“About the middle of September the herring fishery commences, and at this time consists of 80 boats, viz., from Lowestoft about 24, Yarmouth 16, and from the different ports of Yorkshire 40; and are in size from 45 to 50 tons measure. They carry 11 or 12 men each, of whom one-fourth are usually landmen, and exclusive of whom are about two landmen to a boat employed on shore in ferrying from the decked boats and in curing the herrings. These boats, with nets, ropes, and stores, cost from £900 to £1000 each, the nets comprising 180 to 200, or two fleets, each net costing 40s. from the high price of hemp. There are 6 ropes of 120 fathom, weighing each 4½ cwt., and costing £12. A fourth of the nets are worn out or destroyed, every year, and the warps must undergo the same recruiting. All articles used in the fishery are now since the war a third dearer. This, with the loss of the Italian markets, which for many years took off a third of the whole quantity redded, has reduced this once valuable trade to its present decline.

At Yarmouth and Lowestoft is also a mackerel fishery of 45 to 50 boats,

each carrying 9 or 10 men, and measuring 25 to 30 tons. These boats are not employed in the herring fishery, nor is their trade productive otherwise than in employing the master and two or three of the principal foreship-men, without whom the herring fishery could not be carried on.

The stoppage of the Italian trade in 1797 made a difference of from £5000 to £10,000. I had six vessels of fifty tons, which, after making me a great voyage, for want of the Italian market this plentiful voyage produced me a loss of £300.

The fishing salt costs fifteen to twenty shillings a ton at Liverpool, but with its heavy freight, insurance, and other charges, costs fifty to fifty-five shillings at Yarmouth.

We have been acquainted with the Dutch method of curing herrings, in a partial degree, from time immemorial. I remember forty years ago there were Dutch curers brought over by the then British Society, to teach the fishermen and curers in the North of Scotland the Dutch mode of curing herrings. I was employed as cooper on board of one of the British busses, and I found the Dutch method the same as that practised at Yarmouth before.

"Was the Yarmouth fishery a flourishing and profitable business previous to the loss of the Italian markets?—Yes; but not to the extent it was thirty or forty years ago. Since the loss of the Italian markets, Yarmouth has lost two-thirds, and Lowestoft about one-fourth."

When asked, together with some of the Scotch witnesses, whether small mesh nets should be restrained, all agreed that it was advisable, for the following reasons:—

"The West India merchants complain the fish taken in the small nets will not stand the climate. In the home market they are so despised, that the curers are often obliged to sell them for less than their cost. These small herrings are only the fry, and to break the shoals when they come on to the coast is injurious. The fishermen report that when large herrings get into these small nets, in hauling them in they drop out and are lost."

Mr. Hobbins, further examined, added:—

"I remember the Dutch fishery forty years ago. It has much declined, both in their Shetland buss fishery, and in that carried on in scoots off the Norfolk coast. It began declining twenty years back, and instead of one hundred sail, which frequented our coast, the number now does not exceed twenty sail.

This evidence is followed by a table of the *Number of Barrels of Herrings, exported from the several Ports of England, in the nine years preceding 1771; the sixteen years preceding 1787; and the ten years preceding 1797, with the Bounty paid thereon, distinguishing the Red from the White (Pickled) Herrings.*

FIRST PERIOD.

For the nine years preceding Jan. 5, 1771, the total for England was 1076 barrels clean shotten herrings, 160,509 barrels red herrings, 37,789½ barrels white herrings; the bounty paid on the above out of the Customs being £90,322, and £21,557 out of the salt duties.

The Yarmouth proportion of these figures was 1076 barrels clean shotten herrings, 148,612 red herrings, and 403 of white herrings, receiving a bounty from the Customs of £13,111 2s. 6d., rather less than one shilling and ninepence per barrel. London which exported 8912 barrels red herrings, and 4215½ of white,

receiving £74,804 11s. 10d. bounty from the Customs,—*a premium averaging nearly six pounds on every barrel!*

SECOND PERIOD.

For the sixteen years preceding Jan. 5, 1787, the English total was 14,219½ barrels shotten, 412,702½ red, and 171,465½ white herrings; the Customs' bounty being £87,747 9s. 9d., and the bounty salt £43,787 11s. 9d. The Yarmouth proportion of the above was 14,046½ barrels shotten, 270,985½ red, and 29 white herrings; the Customs' bounty amounting to £24,417 8s. 5d., averaging one shilling and ninepence per barrel as before. London, which exported 86,733 barrels red, and 91,510 white herrings, received £47,885 9s. 7d. Customs' bounty, a premium averaging five shillings and sixpence per barrel.

THIRD PERIOD.

For ten years preceding Jan. 5, 1797, the English total was 792 barrels shotten, 161,245½ of red, 167,008½ white herrings; the Customs' bounty being £54,747 16s. 2d., and the bounty salt £27,205 13s. 8d. The Yarmouth proportion being 733½ barrels shotten, 104,342 red, and 775 white herrings, the Customs' bounty amounting to £9,269 18s. 8d., about one shilling and ninepence per barrel. London exported 37,365½ barrels red, and 75,783 barrels white herrings; the Customs' bounty amounting to £32,651 6s. 11d., averaging five shillings and sixpence per barrel.

The great discrepancies in the bounty received by the ports of Yarmouth and London will strike the reader. Our space precludes a description here of the different and conflicting premiums offered to the fishery by Government last century. Their inequalities and partial nature created a wide-spread discontent, which found ample vent before the several Committees. The fatal error, both of Government and the Fishery Associations, was a blind persistence in copying the Dutch methods, which were necessitated by the great distance from home at which they fished, and were unfitted for a coast fishery like ours, especially that carried on in the creeks and bays round Scotland. Excessive tonnage premiums were offered for busses of large dimensions and costly outfit, which never paid their expenses, and in the long run were simply sent out—to use the caustic phrase of Adam Smith—“to catch the bounty.”

One bounty was that of 27, Geo. III, c. 10, to “vessels taking within the space of one year the proportion of six barrels of herrings for each ton of the vessel's burthen.” In the ten years preceding Jan. 5, 1797, Yarmouth received this bounty on 251 vessels of 11,636 tons, and crews numbering 2979 men, the number of barrels taken being 92,254, and the amount of bounty £16,248 14s. 0d. Another bounty was that of 35, Geo. III, c. 56, for herrings taken by vessels not fitted out for the tonnage bounty,

which were entitled to one shilling per barrel. In the ten years preceding Jan. 5, 1797, 102,963 barrels, so captured at Yarmouth, received a bounty of £5,932 16s. 0d.

A Parliamentary Committee sat to inquire into the depressed state of the British Channel Fisheries, in 1833, great complaints having been made of the encroachments of the French fishermen, the large importation of foreign caught fish, and of the wholesale destruction of spawn. Among other witnesses called, was Mr. Thomas Hammond, of Yarmouth, from whom we borrow a few notes of the condition of the fishery at that date.

"The number of boats engaged is about one hundred sail. During the herring fishery we engage from Yorkshire between forty and fifty sail. The capital employed is from £220,000 to £250,000. The average expense of fitting a boat for the season is from £600 to £700; we find it nine score nets during the voyage. Between four thousand and five thousand men are employed in the fishery directly.

Among the grievances complained of, is the duty levied on our herrings in the Neapolitan market, which is 16s. a barrel, and the freight and commission, 10s. 3d. a prohibitory amount. It was formerly our great market, and if the duty was taken off would consume 10,000 to 12,000 barrels yearly. At Leghorn the freight and charges amount to 11s. 4½d.; at Genoa, 10s. 4d.; at Palermo the duty is 12s.; at Venice there is no duty, but the charges amount to 10s. 6½d.; at Trieste it is the same; at Rome there is a municipal duty of 8s. 4d.

We reckon twenty-five to thirty lasts a very good catch for a vessel of from forty to fifty tons, the value per last depending on the quantity caught. There is the same expense as to curing them whether you get a lesser or a greater quantity, save and except the wages.

We have no trawlers that go out of Yarmouth; men come off our coast from Torbay.

Our fishermen pay the sixpenny duty per month to the Greenwich Hospital. We have paid it for upwards of twenty years, and unjustly, inasmuch as we and Lowestoft are the only places that pay it.

We pay tithes on both herring and mackerel. The clergymen value the herring at so much per last, according to their number. Persons go round and ascertain the number each boat has caught, value them, and deduct a certain proportion for the boat's expense; the remainder is divided into eighty shares, of which he takes one. It amounts to between £2 and £3 for each boat. The Yorkshire boats pay nothing."

Mr. Benjamin Brown, of Lowestoft, examined:—

"The Customs charge us with the Greenwich head-money of 6d. per month, alleging that we are not bringing fresh fish into port like other fishermen, but cured on board, and therefore in the nature of a cargo."

Seventy boats of forty tons each are employed in fishing at Lowestoft. They are never at sea above fourteen days.

From one hundred and fifty to two hundred boats are employed on the coast, stowboat and sprat fishing.

In our days there used to be formerly a great many soles; now we have none. This is attributed to the stowboats.

In 1808, by the Act 48, Geo. III, c. 110, a body of "Commissioners for the British Fisheries" were appointed, for "their encouragement and better regulation." Their title was from the outset a misnomer,—consisting of a small number of Scottish

* This head-money has ceased to be paid.

noblemen and gentlemen, it has been in its actual operation a Board for the guidance and promotion of the Scottish fisheries, maintaining a staff of officials, and disbursing annual grants in the improvement of old harbours and the creation of new ones. It has issued a yearly report of its proceedings. In these the Returns from all the Scottish fishing stations have been carefully collected every year, and those from the principal English stations. In 1849, some reductions of the staff having been made by the Treasury, involving the discontinuance of the English stations, their returns ceased to be collected; as a natural result, from that day to the present, the elaborate statistics of the Scotch fisheries have mainly represented in the eye of the world, at home and abroad, this great and progressing branch of British industry. As furnishing, however, any accurate standard of comparison between the English and Scotch fisheries, the annual returns were from the first, not simply useless, but misleading, the English returns giving only 'white herrings'—a mere fraction of their catch. No note or comment serves to indicate this, the unsuspicious reader being left to flounder unwarned into the pitfalls of erroneous induction, which lurk beneath the arithmetical quagmires appended to the end of each Report.*

The latest official statistics of the Yarmouth fishery are those issued in the tables for 1849. In quoting them, we give in juxta position the statistics of Wick, the head quarters of the Scotch fishery (which has, however, many other stations of importance), together with the principal English stations—Isle of Man; St. Ives, the seat of the Devon and Cornwall fishery; London, of the South Eastern; and Sunderland and Whitby, of the English North Eastern fisheries.

* An illustration of the danger of exploring these statistics without a guide, is supplied in Sir W. Jardine's *Naturalist's Library*, 40 vols., Edinburgh, 1837—one of the last books in which so flagrant a blunder should have appeared. In an account of the herring—*Fishes*, vol. 2, p. 188—is the following:—"According to Parliamentary Reports, in the year ending April 5, 1819, the astonishing quantity of 840,660 barrels was landed from the fishery and cured, and of this 227,162 barrels were exported from Great Britain. Of this quantity only one twenty-second part of the whole was taken by English fishermen; the rest was the produce of the Scottish coast,—the little town of Wick furnishing nearly one-fifth of the whole."

Turning to the Report for 1818, table 6, from which these wonderful conclusions are drawn—"An Account of the Total Number of Barrels of WHITE HERRINGS landed from the Fishery"—we found the catch of Yarmouth set down as 611 barrels gutted, and 428 cured (ungutted), a total of 1039 barrels! But what of the red herrings, and the herrings sold fresh and in bulk, amounting to many thousands of barrels? The total English catch, as given in this table is but 10,450 barrels, and Portsmouth is credited with half of these. The Manx figures are suppressed altogether.

The bitter sarcasm of Dr. Johnson would seem not to have lost its force:—"A Scotchman must be a very sturdy moralist who does not love Scotland better than truth; he will always love it better than inquiry; and, if falsehood flatters his vanity, will not be very diligent to detect it."

TONNAGE ACCOUNT.—YEAR ENDING JANUARY, 1850.

Names of Places.	Tonnage of boats employed in Herring, Cod, and Ling Fisheries.	Square yards of netting used in Herring Fishery.	Yards of long lines, hand lines, and buoy ropes used in the Fisheries.	Value of Boats employed.	Value of Nets employed.	Value of Lines.	Total value of Boats, Nets, and Lines.
YARMOUTH	21,012	9,525,600	2,306,274	£ 194,720	£ 100,800	£ 21,105	£ 316,625
Wick	7008	8,958,600	590,760	17,055	33,430	2115	52,600
Isle of Man	5556	2,772,160	537,600	59,125	16,200	1280	76,605
St. Ives, Cornwall	8740	2,307,950	943,240	51,200	16,810	2410	70,420
London	6967	2,763,120	1,286,990	56,870	23,027	8794	88,691
North Sunderland	4276	2,654,844	1,032,260	16,610	16,385	2173	35,168
Whitby	3232	2,747,500	3,735,600	18,540	10,990	8360	37,890
Totals of all English and Scottish Stations }	126,520	94,916,584	36,313,706	630,282	465,931	92,877	1,189,090

It will be seen from these figures that the capital invested in the Yarmouth Fisheries nearly equalled the joint amount of the six other stations quoted, and exceeded one-fourth of the total sum invested in the British fisheries.

The herring statistics in the tables for 1849 are very imperfect as regards Yarmouth, no account of the cured and smoked fish appearing. The number of herrings taken and sold, or otherwise consumed, and *not cured*, is set down at—Yarmouth, 113,574 barrels; Wick, 16,213; Isle of Man, 10,000; St. Ives, 1800; London, 26,224; North Sunderland, 21,400; Whitby, 29,123; the total catch uncured being 381,281, of which nearly one-third appears to the credit of Yarmouth.

BOAT ACCOUNT.—YEAR ENDING JANUARY, 1850.

Names of Places.	Number of Boats decked or undocked, in Herring, and Cod and Ling Fisheries.	Number of Fishermen and Boys by whom the said boats were manned.	Number of Coopers employed.	Number of persons employed in gutting, packing, cleaning, or drying the fish.	Number of Labourers employed.	Total number of Persons employed.	Number of Fish Curers.
YARMOUTH	859	5216	232	2078	859	8385	316
Wick	567	1701	271	2682	256	4910	71
Isle of Man	605	3865	23	164	58	4110	142
St. Ives	940	3233	22	1794	104	5153	89
London	626	2826	1	117	..	2944	35
North Sunderland	576	1238	44	429	80	1791	29
Whitby	283	950	25	243	582	1800	13
Totals of all British Stations	14,962	59,792	2181	28,993	7360	98,326	1619

In this account the return of boats is made according to the districts to which the boats belong. The number of boats employed at each station during the Herring fishery cannot be given with accuracy, because many of the boats remove from station to station, and the same boats fish at several different stations according to weather, agreement with curers, &c.

If the Yarmouth figures in this table be compared with those of the total British stations, they appear to present a rough average of about one-tenth under every heading, excepting the first and last.

The tonnage of many of the Yarmouth busses is quadruple that of most other herring boats. Compare columns I in tables 1 and 2. An examination of these figures will assist in forming an approximation of the proportion of herrings landed at Yarmouth. Yarmouth and Wick are the respective head quarters of the English and Scotch herring fishery, as is clearly indicated in columns III and VII, coopers and curers. Nearly the whole of the Scotch catch is barrelled, but a very large proportion of the Yarmouth fish are dispatched in bulk, and in swills, baskets of bloaters, &c., to be consumed fresh or lightly cured, inland. We shall not be far wrong in estimating that at least a fourth, more probably a third of the herrings taken in the British fisheries are landed at Yarmouth and Lowestoft.

Table 5 in this Report gives the quantity of cod, ling, or hake, taken and sold, or otherwise consumed and not cured, in 1849. The total British take is given at 276,287 cwts.; of this quantity 45,600 is credited to St. Ives, 1000 to Wick, 11,222 to London, 18,400 North Sunderland, 48,096 Whitby, and 20,019 Yarmouth.

Fourteen years have elapsed since these figures, which include those of Lowestoft, were published, and in the interval probably no ports in Great Britain have made greater strides in the extension of their fisheries. As no dues of any kind are charged upon the fish caught at Yarmouth, no machinery exists for arriving with minute accuracy at the statistics; and the system which prevails of approximating at the totals by a rough average of each boat's computed catch, is too loose and imperfect for much reliance to be placed in the figures arrived at. The apathy which is displayed by townsmen on this subject astonishes strangers, for whilst every other town in the kingdom is putting its best leg foremost, and calling out lustily to outsiders to come and look on, the Yarmouth people appear just as anxious to shroud the particulars of their great staple industry in obscurity. Never in the annals of the old burgh were so many fish brought into it as during the past year, and we shall endeavour presently to approximate at the catch from such data as exist.

The herring fishery is divided into two branches—catching and curing. In Scotland they are quite distinct, the curers making the needed advances to the fishermen. At Yarmouth both are combined; at Lowestoft but little curing is done, the fishery being carried on mainly by half-and-half boats selling their catch on the pier immediately it is landed, whence it is quickly dispatched by rail to all parts. The usage at Yarmouth of past years, has been to engage a crew for the voyage, supplying provisions and paying an agreed scale of wages *per last caught*. By articles signed last voyage, we found the scale in use to have been—master 16s.; mate 10s.; oarsman and whaleman, each 8s.; net ropeman 6s. 6d.; net stower 6s.; all-work man 5s.; four capstan men, each 4s.; boy 3s.—Total for the crew of 12 hands £3 18s. 6d. The cost of victualling the boat, which is usually done on a liberal scale, averages £5 per week. Assuming the voyage to extend 14 weeks and to realise 50 lasts, the outlay in provisions and wages will have been nearly £275 or £5 10s. per last, exclusive of outfit, capital invested, salt-curing, house plant, and wear and tear.* The advantages of this arrangement are not reciprocal: when fish are scarce and the prices ruling are high, it operates more favourably to the merchant than the crew; when fish are plentiful and prices down, the gain is with the men, who receive the same amount although the sales may not cover the cost of catching. Last year was a 'men's year.'

In antagonism to this mode of conducting the fishery, is the

* Add also 'ferrying' the fish from the Roads to the beach, 8s. per last.

half-and-half boat system, which is extending itself every year. It originated with the Yorkshire cobs, large numbers of whom were wont to attend the fishery. *Some of these hired themselves for the season to the fish merchants, but a number carried on the fishery on their own account, the crews selling their catch by auction, finding for it a ready sale amongst the buyers from the interior congregated at Yarmouth and Lowestoft, and from the local curers who did not fish. The dimensions of the boats engaged in it have been yearly expanding; formerly the venture was divided into doles or shares, one-half going to the owners of boat and netting, the other half being shared in agreed proportions by the crew—hence the origin of the term. Now, when the capital invested in larger boats and more numerous nets is become greater, the division of the spoils is no longer half and half. The voyage may be divided into 180 doles, and of these 100 or 110 go to the boat, the remainder to the crew. In this system the men have a larger stake; their gains are entirely dependent on their exertions and success, and there is every inducement to practice economy; the boat is manned by fewer hands proportionately, who have to work harder,—and cheapness is studied in every department.*

The natural tendency of the rivalry thus created is to lower prices, often to an unremunerative point, the native fishermen being frequently obliged to accept prices forced upon them by the keen competition of the 'foreigners,' and the benefit of successful catches are neutralised by their depreciated value.† Day after day millions of fish may be landed for absolute sale until the market is perfectly glutted. The local fish merchants are enabled to contend against unsatisfactory prices for their fresh fish, by consigning them to their curing houses for a later sale; but this can only be done to a partial extent. Although the catch of 1863 was very heavy, it was by no means a favourable season for the fish merchants. The depression of the manufacturing districts operated most injuriously on consumption and prices, and in consequence a much larger export than usual was shipped abroad.

An erroneous impression prevails that the bulk of the produce of

* Whilst the half-and-half boat system is extending itself in the herring fishery, owners find it difficult to induce crews to engage on the same terms for the mackerel voyage. This is a more precarious venture, and the men decline the risks; stipulating for a sum irrespective of the catch. In some instances crews ship for the mackerel fishery, on the distinct understanding that they are also retained for the herring voyage.

† Recently the Yarmouth curers have become exposed to a competition with Norwegian herrings, large consignments of which are now made to the East Coast, as well as to London and the inland markets. In 1854 the imports from Norway of cured herrings was 2952 cwt.; in 1860 it sprang up to 101,404 cwt. In 1862 their spring herring fishery amounted to 659,000 barrels, nearly three-fourths of which were destined for foreign markets. The fish caught on the Norway Coast from January to March are very large, and average from 13 to 15 inches in length; they are called GRABBERSILD, or grey-boned herring, and are of a coarse woody flavour. Four hundred will fill a barrel. We saw large numbers of them lying at Lowestoft, Easter, 1863. The price quoted for them was from 16s. to 18s.

the East Coast Fisheries is swallowed up by the omniverous maw of London. * This is not the case: the consignments thither are very large, but Yarmouth and Lowestoft possess better and more profitable markets in the manufacturing districts, and the larger proportion of their herrings, fresh, bloaters, and red, are dispatched inland. The only statistics of fish consumption in print, are those of the London market, and although we think there must be great exaggeration in their stupendous totals, we quote them, that our readers may feel how justly the herring is entitled to the distinction which naturalists have conferred upon it, of 'rex piscium.' They have been compiled by two different writers, Mr. Mayhew and Mr. Braithwaite Poole, from figures furnished by the Billingsgate salesmen and the fish merchants, and although differently arranged the amounts agree.

Whilst of salmon the average yearly sold at Billingsgate is set down at 406,000; of live cod, 400,000; of soles, 97,520,000; and of mackerel, 23,520,000; the sale of herrings is

	Numbers.	Weight. Tons.	Value. £
Fresh herrings, 250,000 barrels of 700 fish ..	175,000,000	18,750	175,000
Herrings in bulk	1,050,000,000	112,500	1,050,000
Bloaters, 265,000 baskets of 150 fresh fish	147,000,000	4,732	75,000
Red herrings, 100,000 barrels of 500 fish ..	50,000,000	625	25,000
Totals	1,422,000,000	136,607	£1,325,000

The value of the entire total sale of fish wet, dry, and shell, is set down at £2,000,000, weighing 230,000 tons.

October and November, the fresh herring season, forms the best portion of the costermonger's fish season, 875,000,000 'wet' or fresh herrings being computed to be sold by them yearly, in the streets of London,* besides 36,750,000 bloaters and 25,000,000 red herrings, realising altogether £1,000,000, forming five-sixths of the aggregate total supply of fish consumed by the humbler classes, and constituting the great slop diet of the metropolis.†

* Several of the dodges resorted to by the costermongers when fish hang upon their hands, were related by them to Mr. Mayhew, with great unction. 'I've salted herrings,' said one, 'but the commonest way of salting is by the Jews about Whitechapel. They make "real Yarmouth bloaters" and all sorts of fish. We give them a bit of a clean, hardly anything; then chuck them into a tub of salt, and keep scattering salt over them, and let them lie a few minutes, or sometimes half an hour, and then hang them up to dry. They eat well enough, if they're eaten in time, for they won't keep. I've known three days' herrings salted, just because there was no sale for them. One Jew sends out six boys, crying "real Yarmouth bloaters!" People buy them in preference, they look so nice and clean and fresh coloured. It's quite a new trade amongst the Jews.'

† "The rooms of the very neediest of our needy metropolitan population always smell of fish, most frequently of herrings. So much so, indeed, that

The modern growth of the Lowestoft Fishery is as remarkable as that of Yarmouth. Gillingwater, the town's historian, writing at the close of last century, furnishes some statistics of its condition during the forty years preceding. As at Yarmouth, there were three classes of boats engaged in the herring fishery,—the 'Town Boats,' the 'West Country Boats,' which in fact sail from the south coast, and the 'North Country Cobles,' from Yorkshire; the number of the Town Boats varied between 1748 and 1789 from twenty to fifty. Lowestoft shared in the depression of its neighbour; the salt duties, privateers and pressgangs checking the enterprise of the fishermen, and this depression was felt the more severely, as the town was entirely dependent on the fisheries for the support of its population. At the close of the War in 1815, Lowestoft rallied. On June 30th, 1821, the value of the catch of 16 boats amounted to £5252, an average of £328 for each boat. The figures subjoined are taken from the Returns drawn up by Mr. W. Cleveland.

Date.	No. of boats employed.	No of lasts caught.	Average of each boat.
1839	84	1573	18½ lasts
1840	75	1621	21½ "
1841	76	1431	18½ "
1843	72	941	13 "
1844	61	1352	22 "
1845	61	1433	23½ "
1846	53	1402	26½ "
1847	45	1245	27½ "
1848	42	1421	33½ "
1849	36	959	26½ "

The opening of its railway and the construction of its harbour of refuge, have given a prodigious stimulus to the fisheries of Lowestoft. The amount sunk in the latter project, by a succession of unlucky companies, has been enormous, probably exceeding half a million, and it takes rank among the many public works of this century, which, whilst so disastrous to their individual promoters, have benefitted the community. Perhaps no port on our coast enjoys at this present moment the same facilities and advantages for the immediate delivery, sale, and dispatch by rail, of fish. Along the northern side of its harbour, a large and spacious covered market, upon which the fish is landed, has been erected. An ample space is allotted to the numerous buyers who congregate here, for packing their purchases,—flanked by stacks of many thousands of their store of empty barrels,—and the railway is extended from the adjacent station. Everything has been done to promote the convenience of buyers and sellers, and a remarkable expansion of the fishery has been the result. During the season to those who, like myself, have been in the habit of visiting their dwellings, the smell of herrings, even in comfortable homes, savours from association so strongly of squalor and wretchedness as to be most oppressive. The volatile oil of the fish seems to hang about the walls and beams of the rooms for ever."—MAYHEW.

of 1862, on several exceptional occasions the daily deliveries were unprecedented—from 400 to 500 lasts* were landed, sold, and sent off—the consignments dispatched filling from 100 to 130 railway trucks. The boats, with very few exceptions, are worked on the half-and-half principle, but little curing being done in the town.*

The Lowestoft Harbour and Fish Markets have passed into the hands of the Great Eastern Railway Company, and the most accurate returns of the Lowestoft Fishery are attainable, every boat having to give a true statement of the quantity and description of all fish delivered, on which a slight landing due is payable.

In 1851, 77,999 packages of fish were dispatched by the Lowestoft Railway, the carriage amounting to £3739. The number of herrings landed at the port appears to be yearly increasing.—in 1854 there were 3050 lasts; in 1855, 5206; in 1856, 5965. By the courtesy of the harbour officials, we are enabled to append a table giving the results of the entire fishery for the year 1862, arranged in months—

LOWESTOFT HARBOUR.

FISH MARKET RETURN FOR THE YEAR 1862.

1862.	No. of Voyages	HERRINGS.	MACKEREL.	COD.	SOLES.	OFFAL FISH.†
		Lasts. Thousands Hundreds.	Hundreds Quarters. Odd.	SCORE	POTS OF 56 LBS.	CWTS.
Jan. . .	161				2170	3973
Feb. . .	96			35	1564	2139
March	164	57 5 4	..	32	1430	1716
April. .	557	323 5 0	..	40	1618	1356
May . .	550	157 5 0	11 0 0	24	2390	1275
June . .	651	22 1 8	8 1 5	..	856	823
July . .	865	52 5 6	336 2 0	..	2100	133
August	232	0 5 0	1998	419
Sep. . .	543	64 7 0	2066	89
Oct. . .	1219	1035 0 8	..	7½	1042	81
Nov. . .	1791	3597 1 2	1158	686
Dec. . .	895	1014 8 4	..	5	1769	1672
	7724	6325 5 2	355 3 5	143½	20,161	14,362

Dues Office, 6th April, 1863.

The seasons of the several fisheries will be seen in the foregoing table. The Lowestoft herring fishery has three seasons: the Spring commencing in March, the Midsummer in May, and the Autumn one in September. Trawling goes on all the year round. It will be seen that about 85 millions of herrings were landed at this port during the year.

* A last of green, i. e. uncured herrings, weighs about two tons.

† The term offal fish includes plaice, whiting, haddocks, and other trawl fish.

From Gillingwater's notices of the Lowestoft fisheries, it appears that the 'Western fishers,' who hailed originally from the Cinque Ports, accompanying their Bailiffs in their annual visit to the Yarmouth Free Fair, ceased visiting Lowestoft about 1756, their place being supplied in 1784 by the North Country Cobles, who received a retaining fee, called 'steerage money,' to defray charges of voyages from home, exclusive of the sum paid per last caught. Their engagement by the town merchants of stranger fishing boats was termed being 'hosted'—a phrase we continually meet with from the Statute of Herrings, A.D. 1357, downwards.*

Gillingwater relates that in 1776 a panic set in amongst the herring merchants of Lowestoft,† an extinction of their fishery being apprehended from the attempts at that time commenced by the merchants of Scotland, the Isle of Man, and Liverpool, to introduce at their respective stations the red herring cure. 'Towers' from Lowestoft and Yarmouth were engaged to teach the processes, and an endeavour was made to displace the English East Coast herrings in the markets of the Mediterranean, the larger coarser fish of the North being introduced at Leghorn, and in the Levant, at lower prices. After several years' operations, the attempt was abandoned as a failure, the nature of the Scotch herring proving unsuitable, their fat and oily quality rendering the fish both difficult to smoke and unpleasant to the taste, the

* The term 'host' is of incessant occurrence in the Yarmouth fishery annals. It is almost uniformly spelt 'oste'—the Italian form—in the early records and ordinances of the town. *Hostis* and *hospes*, Lat., contain the same root, which also appears in the German *gast*, Eng. *guest*. Bopp and Pott derive them from the Sax. *ghas*, to eat. *Hostire*, Lat., denotes to recompense. *Hostes*, a host. The *t* changed into *p* yields *hospes*, or stranger, hospital, hospitable &c. *Hôte*, Fr., denotes alike the host that gives hospitality, and the guest that receives it. *Host*; Eng., *v. n.*, to lodge at an inn—*v. a.*, to give entertainment to,—hence *hosteler*, *hostelrie*. *Hoste*, *s.*, a vendor of articles out of ships or houses.—Hastings Records, 1604. "To reckon without one's host" is one of the commonest of our proverbs. See Richardson's Dictionary for a very copious and interesting series of examples of the various uses of the word in our old English Literature.

† In 1670, Lowestoft, Pakefield, and Kirkley, alleging an utter decay of their fisheries, petitioned Parliament for relief, suggesting, among other proposals for their improvement,—that a year's assessment for the poor be advanced in the parishes of England, for building convenient houses in the chiefest towns, and for stock for hemp to set poor and idle persons to work to spin twine and make nets. That all foreign nets be prohibited. That all persons of ability have a small quantity of herrings imposed upon them, at the common rate, according to quality. That two fish days be observed weekly, and no flesh spent, unless for good reason, under license of the minister of the parish. An Act was accordingly passed the same year freeing from duty and excise all materials and provisions used in the fisheries, and enacting that all victuallers, inns, alehouses, ordinaries, chandlers, vintners, and coffee houses be obliged to take, one, two, three, four, or more good and merchantable barrels of herrings yearly, for the term of seven years ensuing.

season also at which they were caught—in the heat of summer—affecting the cure.

In 1781 only eight boats were sent to the fishery from Lowestoft, our war with France, Spain, and Holland, rendering its prosecution so hazardous that no insurance could be obtained under 50 per cent. The duration of the fishing season seems to have ranged, with almost unvarying regularity last century, from the last week in September to the third week in November, a period of nine weeks.

A term of constant recurrence in the annals of the herring fishery is that of 'dole,' or share, or deal as it is called in the north of England.* The fishery is perhaps the oldest of the very few industries which have been carried on from the first in a declared partnership between capital and labour. At the outset an agreed value, to be deducted from the catch, is placed on the boats and outfit of netting. At the close of the season, after this outlay has been repaid to the owner, the produce is divided into doles, their number depending on the size of the boat and crew. Among the earliest existing statutes and ordinances of the town, are those for regulating the several proportions of these doles to be paid to the crews, engaged for the 'mackerel and herring farrings.† A number of Flemings were hired, to be paid at a lower rate than the native fishermen.‡

Of these doles, one was formerly set aside for the church and the town; the former, called 'Christ's half-dole,' was paid to the minister in lieu of his tithe of fish; the other, 'the town's half-

* It is also used in the rural districts here. A dole, or several, is a piece of land, on a heath, or common, on which only one person has a right to cut fuel.

† *FARAN*, Ang. Sax., to go a journey, to sail, depart; Dutch, *varen*; Frisian, *fara*; Ger., *fahren*; Dan., *fare*; Swed., *fara*; Icel., *fer*. 'Fare, of schepemen be the see' *Promptorium Parvulorum*.

Among other instances of the tendency in every language of the special nature of the occupations of the people gradually assuming more abstract significations, Mr. Marsh, in his *Lectures on the English Language*, quotes that of the herring fishery. *NERING*, German *NAHRUNG*, in Dutch signifies properly nourishment, sustenance, the business by which men earn their bread. The importance of the herring fishery to Holland made it emphatically the nering, or vocation of the Dutch seamen, and *ter nering varen* means to go on a fishing cruise.

‡ By an ordinance of the Yarmouth Corporation, made A.D. 1563, the size of nets was regulated "by the Authoritie of the Courts of Admiralty within this towne, and also wholly agreed by the whole assent of the said assembly that noe person nor persons hereafter shall use or occupye any herringe netts within this towne, but every nett to be of the lawfull sise as followeth—that is to wite, a nett called twelve score, to be of six and twenty yards in length of lynte; and every nett called nine score nett to be eight and twenty yardes of lynte in lengthe. The payne of every nett that is founde to the contrary, the owners thereof to pay for every tyme so offendynge to the use of the towne three shillings and fower pence."

dole,' by a bye-law, dating from 1484, was assigned to the support of the haven and pier. In the reign of Edward III, 'Christ's half-dole' is said to have realised 700 marks. In the reign of Henry VII it had fallen to 60 marks. The half doles from the cod fishery in the time of Charles I, were estimated to be worth nearly £300 per annum. In 1667 the Pier Half-Dole was certified by the Corporation to be worth £135 yearly.

No branch of industry has received a greater impetus from the opening of railways and steam navigation, than the fishery. In fact, they have completely revolutionised it, opening up steady and profitable markets in every direction, assuring the delivery of its products in a fresh and marketable condition, dispelling its periodical gluts, and thereby divesting it of the uncertainty which attended its operations on land. Our sea harvests have been brought to an uniformity of conditions, not differing very widely from those of the land; both are still exposed to the vicissitudes of wind and weather, of seasons of famine and abundance; but the deliveries of their respective produce in our great markets may now be relied on with an almost equally sustained and uniform periodic regularity.*

"In the fish trade indeed," exclaimed Robert Stephenson, in his Inaugural Address to the Institution of Civil Engineers, Jan. 1856, "railways have caused and are causing a prodigious revolution. Large fishing establishments have been formed at different parts of the East Coast. Before the Norfolk Railway was constructed, the conveyance of fish from Yarmouth to London was entirely conducted in light vans with post horses, and was represented by a bulk of about 2000 tons a year. At present, 2000 tons of fish are not unfrequently carried on the Norfolk Railway, not in a year, but in a fortnight."

The heavy cost of its fish carriage proved a serious drawback and limitation to the Yarmouth fishery.† It was ascertained in 1840, that the carrying business in mackerel alone produced a revenue of £6,512 yearly, being the hire of two steam boats £1,744, the cost of cutter boats, £868, of boats contributed by Lowestoft, £850, of six vans daily to London, £2,700, and incidental conveyances, £6,512, yearly. In regard to the herring fishery the catch of seven years previous had been averaged at 20 lasts per boat, one-third of the produce being sent to London at

* Our sea, like our land harvests, are now exposed to the competition of the foreigner. We have noticed (note, page 337) the recent increasing influx of Norwegian herrings. The profits of the mackerel fishery of 1863 were greatly injured by large importations of mackerel from Norway packed in ice, which forced the prices down to an unremunerative point.

† We may instance another drawback formerly of occasional occurrence:—Nov. 7, 1811.—The take of herrings was very great at Yarmouth. The uncommon mildness of the season, and prevalence of westerly winds, greatly frustrated the hopes of the fishermen, who from these circumstances could neither preserve nor bring their herrings to the London markets. Immense numbers were lost in this way.—ANNUAL REGISTER.

a cost for conveyance of £4,046, yearly.* The conveyance of the produce of the North Sea fishery sent to London, was £400 yearly. A third of the herring catch, and a considerable quantity of mackerel were sent to Yorkshire and other inland markets. For the conveyance by vans of the trawl catch, soles, turbot, &c., the Agent of the Hungerford Market paid £210 weekly. The whole cost of conveyance was estimated at £400 weekly for five months, or £8000 yearly.

A yearly traffic of 7000 tons of fish was placed on the Norfolk line at its outset. In 1847 the fish sent from Yarmouth to London comprised 315,917 baskets, and 43,670 sent into the country; the carriage amounting to £12,912. In 1853 the *Annus Mirabilis* of the Yarmouth Fishery up to that date, 12,000 tons weight of herrings were sent into the country by railway; half of them to London. Many thousand barrels were sent coastwise by steamers, exclusive of a great foreign export. In 1854, 533,425 packages of fish, weighing 20,003 tons 5 cwt, were dispatched from Yarmouth by railway alone.

Whilst the Scotch pickled herring fishery, an industry of comparatively modern growth, has acquired for itself a large and increasing consumption amongst the Protestant population of Northern Europe, the great foreign markets of the Yarmouth red herring have for centuries lain amongst the Roman Catholic nations of the South.† Large quantities are sent up to London to be dispatched thence, but the bulk are exported in vessels specially chartered for the shores of the Mediterranean, a voyage which has time out of mind been termed in Yarmouth, 'the Straights.' This is undertaken by two associations, who in a spirit of friendly rivalry have dubbed each other 'the Strong-back Company,' and 'the Weak-back Company, and of one or

* Bayne's Trade of Norwich and Norfolk. 1852.

† The Yarmouth red herring exportation has almost from the first laboured under grievous disadvantages. The heavy freight incurred by the lengthy voyage to the ports of the Mediterranean is a great drawback to its profits. Add to this the onerous duties and local charges, and the result has been that with some countries it has been carried on under conditions almost prohibitory. In Spain and Portugal they are quite excluded.

The dues levied on the Scotch herring in the Baltic have been trifling in comparison, and to mitigate these, and to open fresh markets, the action of our Government has been incessantly and successfully invoked in their behalf. In fact, the Scotch Fishery Commissioners admit that their large trade is almost exclusively owing to the moderate import duty of the German Zollverein.

We quote from their 'Report on Impediments affecting the British Trade, to the Continent in Herrings, 1849,' the various foreign import duties:—Zollverein 3s. per barrel; Austria, 4s., and transit duty through; Prussia, 1s. 6d.; Russia, 4s. 4d.; France, 40 francs per kilogramme of 2 cwt. (This has since 1860 been reduced to 10 francs.) In Holland the duty is prohibitory. (It is quite moderate now.) Belgium—by the Convention of 1852—a duty is levied of 13 francs per barrel of 150 kilogrammes of pickled herrings; and 8 francs per 1000 red herrings. In the States of Italy, Greece, and Turkey it exceeds 10s. per barrel, besides local dues.

other of these factions all the curers and shippers are members.* The Yarmouth export of late years has been a steady average of from 30,000 to 40,000 barrels. Last year 51,406 barrels of red herrings were shipped to the Mediterranean direct from Yarmouth, in 26 vessels specially freighted. Consignments of pickled herrings are forwarded to Scotland, where they help to swell the local statistics. The Hull and Newcastle steamers ship yearly from Yarmouth to those ports many hundred barrels and half-barrels of herrings. Curing is carried on at Norwich, and a number of wherries are filled up with fish in bulk and sent up the Yare. Several thousands of barrels are also sent away in small consignments in the course of the year, in coasters and trading vessels, from the port.

The courtesy of the Yarmouth Haven Commissioners, and of the Directors of the Great Eastern Railway, enables us to draw up the statistics for the year 1862 of the herring fishery of this coast, with much greater completeness and accuracy than we had originally anticipated.

GREAT EASTERN RAILWAY.

Statement showing the Quantity of Herrings carried by Railway from Yarmouth and Lowestoft, during the year 1862.†

FROM YARMOUTH.			
Number of Packages	349,236	Weight	Tons 11,535
FROM LOWESTOFT.			

Number of Packages	164,320
Truck Loads—Loose Herrings	284
Weight	Tons 10,608

GRAND TOTAL.

Number of Packages	513,556
Truck Loads (Loose Herrings)	284
Weight	Tons 22,143

To the Yarmouth Haven Commissioners we are indebted for a copy of all the entries of herrings, dispatched as whole or part cargoes, by sea, from Yarmouth, which appear in their books during 1862, the nature of the packages, their destination, and weight.

Barrels of Herrings ..	56,199	Pots	453
Half-barrels ditto	3945	Peds	217
Tubs	11,525	Boxes	1425
Kegs	627	Lasts (of 13,200 fish) in	
Baskets	1280	bulk	124

The total weight amounted to 6891 tons.‡

* 'Share and share alike' is the maxim of these bodies, and no one individual consignment is condemned to line the bottom of the hold.

† For these figures the writer is specially indebted to the courtesy of Capt. Jervis White-Jervis, M.P.

‡ The home markets for Yarmouth herrings dispatched by sea are our principal ports—London, Liverpool, Falmouth, Portsmouth, Sunderland, Whitby, Bristol, &c. Quantities were sent in bulk last year (1862) to Montrose, Ostend, Lubeck, Hull, &c.

Exclusive of the foregoing, by the Newcastle steamers were also conveyed during the year 777 barrels and 753 casks (one-third of barrels), weighing 102 tons; and by the Hull steamers 637 barrels, 213 casks, and 9 peds, weighing 72 tons.

The total tonnage of herrings, dispatched from Yarmouth by the three channels last enumerated, was—

Great Eastern Railway Company ..	Tons	11,535
Haven Commissioners	”	6891
Hull and Newcastle Steamers	”	174—18,600 Tons

To reduce this tonnage so as to arrive at a fair estimate of the quantity of fish it includes, will require some calculation.* Taking the simplest bases, the rough local estimates of weight and measurement, the last of fresh herrings, (13,200 fish,) as weighing about 2 tons; the barrel about 2 cwt, and containing on an average 700 fish—we should arrive at the following results. 18,600 tons; 9,300 lasts; 186,000 barrels; 130,200,000 herrings.

This would however be a great under-estimate, inasmuch as it is computing the entire catch, at the weight of full, fresh, or ‘wet’ fish of the largest size. The smoked red herring, the curing of which absorbs nearly half the Yarmouth catch, loses much of its weight in the process, and a barrel of 2 cwt. will contain 1000 fish and upwards. A proportion (about a fifth,) of the catch are shotten herrings, and of these a last will be just half the weight of the full fish. A barrel of Yarmouth herrings, as regards its weight and contents, is anything but a fixed quantity, and if a dozen persons in the fish trade be asked to define it, the probability is that a different answer will be made by each, the most frequent reply would give 500 fish to the cwt.; the red herring forming the staple of the local trade.

A third of the herrings landed at Yarmouth are dispatched to the manufacturing districts, another third to the London market, and the remainder to the Mediterranean and to our seaports. About half this ‘herring crop’ is sent off fresh or lightly cured,

* Weight is the sole basis upon which the Yarmouth catch of herrings can be computed. After wasting a month in the fruitless attempt to harmonise the various packages into something like uniform quantities, we were compelled to abandon the task as hopeless. Herrings are dispatched from the town in an endless variety of quantities and wrappings, to suit the convenience of the retailers. The foreign export of red herrings is sent away in barrels, half-barrels, tubs, kegs, and baskets, the three latter roughly averaging the third of a barrel. A dealer’s pots and peds contain larger quantities than those supplied to the public. Boxes hold about $\frac{1}{2}$ cwt. About a fifth of the catch are sent inland ‘pickled,’ i.e. put in barrels as soon as unloaded. Salt is thrown in and brine poured over them, but they are not gutted like the Scotch fish. These are purchased and dispatched by the agents of the inland curers and dealers. Barrels of pickled herrings average seven to a ton, and are stated to average 500 fish to the cwt. ‘Green’ fish are packed with very little salt. Large numbers of the bloaters are sent away packed in what are called half-barrels, holding 200 fish, as well as in hampers, peds, and pots: Red herrings vary in weight according to size of fish—a common estimate is 650 fish, 120 lbs. Barrels of red herrings range from 1 cwt. to 150 lbs.; half-barrels, 68 lbs.

the other half smoked. We shall we think be under the mark in estimating the former as averaging 400 fish to the cwt., and the latter 500. This will produce—

	Herrings.
9,300 tons, at 400 fish to the cwt. . .	74,400,000
9,300 tons, at 500 fish to the cwt. . .	93,000,000—167,400,000

To these figures remain to be added the number of herrings consumed in the town and neighbourhood, which as a visitor will soon find out is very large—the quantity put on board shipping in the Haven and Roads as provisions—the quantity sent up by wherry-loads to Norwich to be there cured—the export in dribbles—the fish which quit the town by its inland navigation, in visitor's luggage, and by a multitude of small channels—the 'plucks and cropshens,' &c., &c. It is difficult to arrive at a reliable estimate of the quantity of fish thus absorbed; but our enquiries lead us to believe that 1000 lasts, or 10 per cent. of the catch is thus disposed of, and this will bring up the Yarmouth Herring Fishery for 1862 to 180,600,000 fish, which with the 85 millions taken at Lowestoft (see page 340) give a total to this coast of 265 millions of fish, weighing upwards of 33,000 tons, and which if packed in barrels holding 700 fish, which we believe is about the average of the Scotch barrels, would fill 380,000 barrels.

The last published Report of the Scotch Fisheries, that for 1861, gives the total quantity of herrings cured in Scotland and the Isle of Man, during that year, as 668,828 barrels, of which rather more than half were exported. The number of herrings in Scotland consumed fresh would seem to be not large in proportion to the pickled fish. We believe no recent statistics of their 'fresh fish' have been published. In 1849 *the last year of the joint English and Scotch Returns*, the "*Account of the total number of barrels consumed, and not cured, as far as can be ascertained*," was—Scotland, 145,270 barrels; England, 236,011 barrels. The proportion of Yarmouth was 113,574; Whitby, 29,123; North Sunderland, 21,400; London, 26,224; Wick, 16,213; Whitehaven, 12,790; Liverpool, 17,600; St. Ives, 1800; Isle of Man, 10,000; Bristol, 3500. This return is interesting as the last attempt made to estimate the catch of herrings sent into the markets fresh. It is no doubt imperfect, but the relative proportions of the catch of the respective localities at that date is probably correct. The gross returns of the herring fishery of 1849 was the largest on record, amounting to 770,698 barrels of cured herrings, and 381,281 barrels of fresh herrings, a total of 1,151,979 barrels.* This did not include any of the red herring cure.

* A standard Yarmouth barrel of herrings should contain 32 gallons, English wine measure. A Scotch cran contains 45 gallons of ungutted herrings. A Scotch barrel contains 37½ gallons of gutted fish, which ought to be equivalent to 32 gallons, English wine measure. Sir T. Dick Lauder, in his directions to the Scotch fishermen, states that 224 lbs. of fish are allowed to each packer for every barrel. The Scotch herrings are larger fish than those of our East coast.

To enable our readers to realise the magnitude of our foreign trade in herrings, and the channels in which they are distributed we append from the Board of Trade Returns

THE EXPORT OF HERRINGS FROM THE YEAR 1857 TO 1861.

	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Prussia	189,216	170,135	115,592	155,187	167,189
Hanover	66,349	52,215	53,012	74,393	72,265
Hanse Towns (chiefly to Hamburg) }	13,628	10,442	11,362	12,905	11,226
Tuscany	19,458	12,758	11,128	12,859	16,194
Naples ..	2979	4240	3636	4107	4427
Papal States	1575	5720	4336	1406
Austria	20,224	18,002	11,835	13,377	*12,409
Malta	1703	3804	2456	635	3190

* Of the above 10,409 entered the State of Venetia.

Another table gives fuller particulars of the exportation of 1861.

	Barrels.	Declared Value.
		£
Russia	14,663	21,008
Sweden	22	26
Denmark	22,268	32,224
Prussia	167,189	243,811
Hanover	72,265	105,599
Hamburg	10,091	16,160
Holland	22,254	32,582
Belgium	3700	4667
France	2959	3546
Italy—Tuscany	16,194	16,247
Naples and Sicily	4427	4379
Austrian States	12,409	12,351
Malta	1903	2105
Australia	3156	5344
Other countries	10,640	13,962

364,118† £513,995

At the present moment the Yarmouth Herring Fishery employs about 180 luggers and 40 half-and-half and West Country boats. It is conducted with greater energy than at any former period. It

†Of the above 56,625 were exported from English ports, of the declared real value of £63,572, and nearly four-fifths of these were from Yarmouth. 307,493 barrels—value £449,896 were exported from Scotland; none from Ireland.

begins earlier and ends later, and nearly six weeks have been added to the season. From Mr. Hammond's evidence in 1833, it seems that about nine score nets were found during the season, now the number is 20 score. Twenty lasts were considered a fair average catch per boat for the season, and thirty lasts something extraordinary. Such a catch would not pay expenses now; fifty, sixty, and seventy lasts are a modern boat's catch. Last season the 10 boats of Mr. Shuckford averaged seventy lasts each.

The amount of capital embarked on this coast in the prosecution of the various fisheries, could only be very roughly estimated. It would include so many ramifications of auxiliary trades and occupations engaged in its outfit and prosecution, shipbuilders and chandlers, coopers, smiths, rope-spinners, basket makers, net braiders, curers, &c., besides bakers, brewers, butchers, grocers, &c., engaged in provisioning it. We have seen that in 1849, the value of boats, nets, and lines, was estimated at £316,625. Since that date nearly a hundred additional trawling vessels have been fitted out. The total capital employed has probably doubled.

Quite as difficult would be the task of computing the population supported by them. No section of the Census of Occupations is more imperfect than that relating to the fisheries, taken as it was in the Spring, when the smallest number of hands are engaged in them.* The fishery furnishes continuous employment for a portion only of the crews, the majority at the close of the season reverting to agricultural pursuits, remaining on the coast as beachmen, or serving on shipboard. A number of the little farmers, dairymen, and market gardeners in the district of the Broads, take part in both the mackerel and herring voyages, some of them owning shares in the boats. The capstan men are principally recruited from the fields, and the masters and mates from the coast-line. A 'countryman' or 'green man' as he is usually called, when once he has found his 'sea legs' is said to make the best fisherman. In Holland this class is nicknamed by the professional fishermen, 'koe-milkens,' and in Norway, 'strand sitters.'† The master of a

* We were in error in stating (page 324) that MANSHIP, writing A.D. 1619, makes no record of the numbers engaged in the herring fishery in his day. He states expressly of the herring fishery, that of 'ships, crayers, and fisher boats, belonging to the said township, there be not so few as 220 of able mariners, and fishermen not less than 1000." He records also that 2000 lasts of herrings were in 1580 brought into the Haven in one tide, 'which were all bought and received, and the fishermen ready to go to sea within two days following.' SWINDON records that in 1613 the London Company of Fishmongers gave orders at Yarmouth for 500 lasts of full red herrings, at £12 the last. Compare this with Note 2, page 325.

† "For understand thus much, that there is a kind of emulation in Holland between the fishermen that go to sea in pinks and line boats, winter and summer, and those fishermen that go in busses; for they in the pinks make a scorn of them in the busses, and do call them KOB-MILKENS

luggers receive about £60 during the season, the crew half that sum each. At the curing-houses, women and girls earn 2s. 6d. per day at *ripping* the fish, for which process 4s. a last is paid. In the height of the season this is a very harrassing employment, the work having at times to be carried on night and day, for many hours at a stretch. In cold weather the continual handling of the fish is very trying to the fingers of the *rivers*. * The ferry-men on the beach receive 8s. per last for landing the fish, and are said to earn from 25s. to 30s. per week at that occupation during the season. The average weekly earnings throughout the year of the fishing population of this coast may be estimated to range from 12s. to 20s.

At an early age the children of fishermen are able to contribute to the support of the family. A fish diet is said to be very favourable to an increase of the population, and fishing ports and villages swarm with children—a lithe, active, sturdy, bright-eyed race.—

“ Young though they be, they feel whose sons they are,
They know what British seamen do and dare;
Rodneys in rags here British valour boast,
And hisping Nelsons fright the Gallic coast.”—CRABBE.

The lads very quickly learn to handle an oar, or manage a line, and as they grow up many of them pass into the coasting trade or the navy. For a seaman there can be no finer training school than the fishery, although it is a rough one (as is all sea life to a young beginner)—the poor little urchins finding it hard lines at starting, and receiving a liberal monkey's allowance of more kicks than halfpence. Seamen reared in this school are much handier than others, their early occupation having exacted unremitting attention and alertness. Whilst the crew of a fishing boat are busy with their nets and lines, they are also acquiring the most valuable rudiments of the seaman's profession—the nature of the sea bottom, the direction and force of tides and currents, the situation of channels and shoals. An outward bound ship, or steamer, once clear of the land, requires but slight alteration in her rig, whilst fishermen and coasters have to vary

or cow-milkers; for indeed the most part of them be men of occupations in winter, or else countrymen, and do milk the cows themselves, and make also the Holland cheese, when at home.”—ENGLAND'S WAY TO WIN WEALTH 1614.

“ The population of Norway, with reference to their means of living and employments may be divided into three distinct classes. The seafaring peasantry occupy the islands, the entire provinces of Nordland and Finmark, and the coast side of all the Fiords, even a hundred miles up from the main ocean. These Strand-sitters, as they are called, have small farms, held generally in life-rent for their own and their widows' lives, and sufficient to keep a couple of cows, some sheep, and to yield potatoes and a little corn in favourable situations. Their subsistence, however, depends upon their fishing.”—LAING'S NORWAY.

theirs almost every hour. From this nursery of skilled and hardy seamanship proceed those hearts of oak, the pick and flower of the fleets of Britain—those

‘Mariners of England
That guard our native seas,’

their country’s peculiar pride, and the envy of every other land.*

The daily life of the fisherman is an eminently hardy one, affording varied employment alike for mind and body, and bringing in a higher remuneration than the majority of sedentary and monotonous occupations. Its chief drawback is its precarious nature, and unless the habits of the men are provident, they render themselves liable to periodical recurrences of distress. The visitor at Yarmouth or Lowestoft will see, however, but little indication either of privation or discomfort in the dwellings of the fishing people, and they seem to have fully shared in that general advance in the condition and well-being of the labouring classes which forms one of the most encouraging features of our times.†

Few spectacles are more beautiful than a fleet of fishing boats running out to sea before a gentle breeze. Many years have passed since our first voyage, when in the evening-sunlight as we watched from a steamer’s deck the Manx herring boats streaming

* One of the Greek poets (Oppian) thus records his ideal of a perfect fisherman:—Physically, he must be well made, active, athletic, skilful; mentally, he must be patient, vigilant, enterprising, intrepid and fertile in dodges and expedients.

† It would be difficult for an explorer of Yarmouth and Lowestoft, now to meet with many dwellings of the class described by Crabbe a century ago:—

Lo! yonder shed; observe its garden ground,
With the low paling, formed of wreck, around:
There dwells a fisher; if you view his boat,
With bed and barrel—’tis his house afloat;
Look at his house, where ropes, nets, blocks, abound,
Tar, pitch, and oakum—’tis his boat aground;
That space inclosed, but little he regards,
Spread o’er with relics of masts, sails, and yards:
Fish by the wall, on spits of elder rest,
Of all his food the cheapest and the best
By his own labour caught, for his own hunger dress’d.

Even the Row as pictured by him in the lines beneath, is fast losing its fishing inhabitants, who are migrating to airier quarters in the suburbs.

“Say, wilt thou more of scenes so sordid know?
Then will I lead thee down the dusty Row;
By the warm alley and the long close lane—
There mark the fractured door and paper’d pane,
Where flags the noontide air, and, as we pass,
We fear to breathe the putrifying mass.
But fearless yonder matron; she disdains
To sigh for Zephyrs from ambrosial plains;
But mends her meshes torn, and pours her lay
All in the stifling fervour of the day.”

Why have the poets been so hard upon the poor fisherman’s abodes? And why is it always to be called by them a hut, and made to serve as a foil to the

out of Douglas Bay, lightly dancing over the waves like a merry band of the Island Fairies, and gradually filling the expanse with their white gleaming sails, we thought we had never seen before so bright a scene. But this fair picture has its reverse. Fishing boats rarely venture out in boisterous weather. A fleet of nets would prove unmanageable and be most likely lost, and the fishing would be attended with little or no success. Sometimes, however, they are caught by a gale, and then on a dangerous coast like that of Yarmouth, where there are no creeks of shelter, and a boat must brave the fury of the storm, grievous casualties will occur. There are many dismal records of such, but none attended with more calamitous results than the May gale of 1860, which surprised the Yarmouth and Lowestoft crews engaged in the mackerel fishery on the 28th of that month. Twenty-one vessels were lost, and their crews (including 15 men washed overboard from other boats), numbering 194 hands, perished; 76 wives were made widows, and 191 children fatherless. This fearful visitation evoked a general expression of public sympathy, and a fund was raised into which subscriptions flowed from all parts of the kingdom. The sum of £10,500 was collected and applied to the relief of the bereaved families.

The herring fishery of this coast is fortunately unencumbered with the complicated drinking usages and whiskey bribes which attend its prosecution in the north of Scotland.* A supper formerly given by the owners of fishing vessels to their crews at the commencement of the season, was called a *bending-foy*, from first bending the sails. On these occasions a punch bowl was filled and drained in drinking success to the voyage. Some of the finest china bowls produced by the old Lowestoft works, and specially commissioned for this express purpose, still exist, embellished inside with the counterfeit presentments of the *Betsy Jane* or the *Red Rover*, and treasured up with great care, to grace these anniversaries, these frail memorials have survived the timbers of the stout luggers, their sponsors, and the brave hearts who manned them.

"rustic cot, with honeysuckle bowers,"—and six or eight lodgers in a room?—If the lingering odour of the red herring be not the most fragrant, neither does that of onions smell of the gales of Arabia. With but slight alteration, the quotation which follows from Pope would equally suit the squalid suburb of many a country village.

"And on the broken pavement, here and there,
Doth many a stinking sprat and herring lie:
A brandy and tobacco shop is near,
And hens, and dogs, and hogs are feeding by;
And here a sailor's jacket hangs to dry.
At every door are sun-burnt matrons seen,
Mending old nets to catch the scaly fry;
Now singing shrill, and scolding eft between;
Scolds answer foul-mouth'd scolds; bad neighbourhood I ween."

* See Dunlop's *Drinking Usages*; Weld's *Orcades*, &c.

Herring Cookery, &c.

"The puissant red herring, the golden Hesperides red herring, the Mæonian red herring, the red herring of Red Herrings Hall, every pregnant peculiar of whose resplendent laud and honour to delineate and adumbrate to the ample life, were a work that would drink dry fourscore and eighteen Castalian fountains of eloquence, consume another Athens of facundity, and abate the haughtiest poetical fury betwixt this and the burning Zone, and the tropic of Cancer."

"There are of you, it may be, that will account me a palterer for hanging out the sign of the Red Herring in my title page, and no such feast towards, for aught you can see. Soft and fair, my masters; you must walk and talk before dinner an hour or two, the better to whet your appetites to taste of such a dainty dish as the red herring."—NASH'S LENTEN STUFF.

An account of the herring fishery would hardly be complete without some brief notice of its cookery. Acting on the advice, 'first catch your hare,' we have left this to the last, by way of epilogue; though possibly the interest of many readers would have been more strongly enlisted had we introduced it much earlier. 'Pour une infinité des bonnes gens,' says a French writer, 'la mer n'est que le domicile des turbots et des sardines, le séjour des morues et la nourrice des huîtres. Au nom de la mer, l'eau leur vient à la bouche.'

The current prejudice against a fish diet, which is common amongst the labouring classes inland, is based upon a presumption that it contains but little nutriment. The result, however, of various analyses of fishes, made by physiologists, indicate that their muscles contain nearly but not quite so much of albuminous principle as the flesh of quadrupeds, and fully as much of saline ingredients. Hence as flesh producing articles they would be nearly equal to beef, &c. The herring contains a large quantity of oleaginous matter mixed with its albuminous principles, which add to its nutritious properties.

Doctors differ, however, on this as on other subjects. 'The flesh of fish,' writes Dr. Pereira on Diet, 'is less satisfying than the flesh of either quadrupeds or birds, and, containing more water, is less nourishing.' Some jockeys, in wasting, use a fish diet. Pechlin affirms that a mechanic nourished solely on fish has less muscular power than one who lives on the flesh of warm-blooded animals. An exclusive flesh diet has its equally injurious tendencies. A Quarterly Reviewer has well observed—'The fish diet to which our forefathers confined themselves on the numerous fast days of the year was at a period when our gentry lived almost entirely in the open air as long as daylight lasted, and sometimes longer, liking better 'to hear the lark sing than the mouse squeak.' The fish fare did not prove insufficient for people who led that healthy life; but how beneficial would it be with our lazier habits! Sumptuary laws are now out of the question; but if we were all obliged to keep

the old fasts, none but invalids—and not many of them—would be the worse for the regimen. Let any one who is not in a course of strong out-door exercise, and is beginning to be *hipped*, as the phrase goes, confine himself to fish two days in the week, and he will soon find that he has a much clearer head, and a much lighter heart.*

It is clear that fish were designed to occupy an important part in the sustenance of mankind, and to contribute largely to that variety of aliment, by which the human frame is best maintained in its highest vigour. A fish diet is generally considered to hold a middle rank between the flesh of warm-blooded animals, and vegetable food. There are sea-board races, who live almost exclusively on fish. Such people are frequently lean and sallow, but they are strong-muscled, and active; ample testimonies to the efficacy of a fish diet. The physique of the fishermen of the East Coast will contrast favourably with that of the bulk of our ill-fed agricultural labourers. The Yarmouth fishing population have always struck the writer as possessing an unusual average of tall, clean limbed, well-set figures, both male and female, and there are few finer corps of our volunteers, than the Yarmouth Volunteer Artillery, recruited from this class. The fishermen have a sun-burnt swarthy visage, produced not merely by their out-door life, but also by the reflection of the sun's rays upon the sands.

Although a fish diet occupies a subordinate part in the repasts of modern Europe, it was not so in earlier times. We meet with many allusions to fish and fishermen in Holy Writ, and but few to the purveyors of animal food. Unlike the negroes of our West Indian possessions, the Children of Israel, when looking back at their captivity, murmured regretfully, 'we do remember the fish which we did eat in Egypt freely.' So prevalent was this diet in the ancient civilized world, that the secondary meaning of the Greek word, *opson*, superseded the primary, originally signifying boiled provisions, it came to be applied to fish as the commonest of food. When our Lord exclaimed in the Sermon on the Mount, If a son ask his father for fish, 'will he give him a serpent,' he was citing a common proverbial expression of that day. Among the twelve apostles called, four were simple fishermen, and these four appear first in the record; the three chosen to bear him company at his transfiguration were all fishermen; and amongst them 'was that disciple whom Jesus loved.'* Fish, with corn and wine, the fruits of the earth,

* Peter and his brother Andrew, James and his brother John, Dean Alford in his Introduction to his Greek Testament, vol. 1, page 50, has brought together many interesting particulars of these fishermen. The three latter were partners (Luke v. 10). Zebedee, father of James and John, had hired servants in his ship (Mark i. 20). Of their mother, Salome, see Luke viii. 3, xxiii. 55, Mark xvi. 1, John xix. 27. Peter, James, and John were the witnesses of the most solemn moments of our Lord's career—the raising of Jairus' daughter, Mark v. 37—the Transfiguration, Mark xvii 1—and of the agony in Gethsemane. To John's care the mother of our Lord was committed in his dying charge upon the Cross, John xix. 26, 27. See also John xiii. 23. Of St. Andrew, see John i. 41, 42. See also John xxi.

appear in His miracles. To the early Christian, fish were especial objects of regard, the symbol of his faith,—and their effigy, with his initials, the sole epitaph graven on his tomb.*

An exquisite relish and appreciation of the delicate flavour of fish is perhaps the truest and most genuine distinction between the epicure and the glutton. Lacépède has finely observed that there is this difference between the chase and the fishery—the latter is the pursuit of the most civilised races. The Egyptians had a catlike propensity for fish. It was the favourite diet of the Athenians, and later of the wealthy and refined Roman patricians. Nothing more amusing has come down to us from classic times than the records in Athenæus of their opsophagy, which attained an insane pitch under the Lower Empire. Zeno, founder of the Stoics dining with a great fish-epicure, on a noble dish being set before him, seized it, and marking the glum looks of his host, exclaimed, ‘What opinion do you think your guests here must conceive of one who cannot indulge his friend for a single day in his well-known weakness for fish.’ Plato, censuring Aristippus for his passion for fish, he replied he had given but a small sum for it. ‘But why even a small sum?’ remonstrated Plato. ‘Because I am as fond of fish as you seem to be fond of money’ was the retort. Demosthenes denounced in public, Philocrates as a profligate debauchee and fish-eater. The epigrams of Martial abound in allusions to this weakness of his contemporaries.

After the break up of the Roman Empire occurs a long blank in fish annals, lasting until the twelfth century, when the eating of fish in Lent was enjoined to the faithful by Pope Gregory, as a check to the inordinate lusts and sallies of the blood produced by continual flesh eating. The policy of sovereigns induced them to promote their fisheries by similar edicts, and fish eating became a part of the creed of the Middle Ages, observed by every devout Catholic,† and maintained by the arm of the law.‡ At the

* The Greek word, *Ikthus*, contains the initials of Jesus Christ, Son of God, Saviour.

† When Cardinal Wolsey was dying at Leicester Abbey, “after he had eaten of a cullace, made of chickens, a spoonfull or two, at the last, quoth he, “Whereof was this cullace made?” “Forsoothe, sir, of a chicken.” “Why,” quoth he, “it is fasting day?” (being St. Andrew’s Even). “What though it be,” quoth his confessor, “ye be excused by reason of your sickness.” “Yea,” quoth he. “What though? I will eate no more.” Then was he in confession the space of an houre.”—CAVENDISH’S LIFE OF WOLSEY.

‡ The Vhemic Court of Westphalia, originally founded by Charlemagne punished with death every Saxon who broke his fast during Lent. The same law was established in Franché Comte, in the beginning of the Seventeenth Century. In the archives of a little place called St. Claude, situate in a remote corner of the mountainous part of Burgundy are preserved the particulars of the sentence and verbal process of the execution of a poor gentleman, named Claude Gillon, who was beheaded July 28, 1629. Being reduced to the utmost poverty, and urged by intolerable hunger, he eat on a fast day a morsel of horse flesh which had been killed in a neighbouring field. For this he was found guilty of sacrilege.—MARQUIS BECCARIA ON CRIMES AND PUNISHMENTS.

Reformation fish eating was not among the superstitious ordinances denounced by the Reformers. A Christian liberty was proclaimed as to meats, and times, and seasons,† but the spiritual benefit derived from a godly abstinence, and mortification of the body were enjoined, and continue to this day to form part of the creed of many of the Reformed Churches. The causes which led to a gradual national discontinuance of a fish diet in England, after the legal enactments which for more than a century after the Reformation so stringently enforced it on particular days in every week were abandoned, seem to have been various. In Elizabeth's reign a party in the nation abstained from it as being professedly a Romish usage. This party would include that large number to whom any species of self-denial is irksome and intolerable. We find a number of allusions in this sense in the writings of that band of roystering spirits—the dramatists of that

† A.D. 1548, 2 & 3 Edw. VI., c. 19, AN ACT FROM ABSTINENCE FROM FLESH (drawn up by Archbp. Cranmer.) Albeit the King's subjects now having a more perfect and clear light of the Gospell and true Word of God, through the infinite clemency and mercy of Almighty God, by the hand of the King's Majesty, and his most noble father of famous memory, promulgate, shewed, declared, and opened; and thereby perceiving that one day or one kind of meat of itself is not more holy, more pure, or more clean than another, for that all days and all meats be of their nature, of one equal purity, cleanness, and holiness, and that all men should by them live to the glory of God, and at all times and for all meats give thanks unto Him, of which meats none can defile Christen men, or make them unclean at any time, to whom all meats be lawful and pure, so that they be not used in disobedience and vice. Yet forasmuch as divers of the King's subjects, turning their knowledge therein to satisfye their sensualitye, when they should thereby increase in virtue, have of late time, more than in times past, broken and contemned such days, commonly called Vigilli, and in the time commonly called Lent, and other accustomed times; the King's Majesty considering that due and godly abstinence is a means to virtue, and to subdue men's bodies to their soul and spirit, and considering also specially that fishers and men using the trade of living by fishing in the sea, may thereby the rather be set on work, and that by eating of fish much flesh shall be saved and increased, and also for diverse other considerations and commodities of this realm, do ordain and enact that all statutes, laws, and usages concerning fasting be repealed. And also that no person, of what estate, degree, or condition he or she be, shall eat any manner of flesh on the usual fish days afore mentioned, under fine of 10s. and ten days' imprisonment for the first offence, to be doubled on the second occasion, the penalties to be recovered before a Justice of the Peace. Sick and aged people, women with child, and soldiers to be exempt.

A.D. 1562-3. 5 Eliz., c. 5. For the provisions of this act see page 320.

A.D. 1603-4. 1 Jac 1, c. 29. An act to encourage the seamen of England to take fish, whereby they may increase to furnish the Navy of England.—Be it enacted that no license heretofore granted to any sick or infirm person to eat flesh during their sickness be any sufficient warrant to eat flesh during Lent, or upon any day now observed as a fish day. And that no butcher, or other person kill any beast in Lent, except for victualling the Navy. And that Justices may enter victuallers' houses and search for and seize meat in Lent. And every innkeeper dressing meat in Lent shall forfeit the penalties imposed 5 Eliz., c. 5.

age.* Shakspeare makes Kent, when he appears in disguise before King Lear, among other things profess 'to eat no fish.'† The compulsory consumption of it would not render its use more popular. It was besides a fish diet in its most unsavoury form, the staple of it being dried salt stock-fish and conger. The improvements of modern agriculture and cattle feeding permitted the community by degrees to emancipate itself from its dreary winter dietary of salted meat and fish, the wealthier classes escaping from it first, and the lower by degrees partaking in the social advancement. Until recent times, salt fish, from motives of economy, formed an important part of the board of large households, and would not be a favourite in the servant's hall. These and other circumstances have contributed to that popular and ignorant prejudice against a fish diet which exists in many quarters.

The consumption of fresh fish in our day is a revival of the luxury of antiquity, brought within reach of the population by railway facilities. For want of rapid transit fresh fish was confined to the sea board, and a few large inland towns whose wealthy inhabitants could afford the heavy cost of carriage. For this reason, and also from the uncertainty of supply, it has hitherto, to the regret of those interested in our fisheries, been altogether excluded from the dietaries of public institutions, unions, prisons, asylums, &c. To the great mass of our inland population, the red herring was the solitary representative of sea fish, and this, from defective cookery, was not made the most of.‡

No fish has proved so great a boon to mankind as the herring, and none has been more deservedly appreciated by maritime

* See notes to Warburton's and to Singer's editions of Shakspeare. Marston's Dutch Courtesan says: "I trust I am none of the wicked that eat fish 'a Fridays." There seems to have been a strong re-action against observing fish days in the reigns of Elizabeth and her successor, and repeated mandates from the Court were disregarded. Archbishop Whitgift, in 1596, in a Letter to the Clergy of his Diocese, strictly enjoins them to mark the attendance of fasts and 'fish days' among their parishioners, and adverts severely on the refractory spirit which disposed them to eat flesh out of lawful season.

John Erdswicke, in his 'Brief Note on the Benefits that grow to this Realme by the observance of Fish Days,' 1598, states the number of fish days in the year to be 154 against 211 flesh days.

† Scott, in his 'Peveril of the Peak,' has misplaced this speech of Kent's, making Julian Peveril quote it as uttered by old Calus, in the scene at the Cat and Fiddle, on the Buxton Moors, where the disguised Edward Christian incurs the suspicion of being an accomplice in the Popish Plot by eating fish. "Do not good woman me, sir," replied the miller's wife, "till I call you good man, and I promise you, many would scruple to do that to one who does not love eggs and bacon on a Friday."

‡ In some of our rural districts a red herring is used by the peasantry as a sovereign remedy to restore the healthy function of digestion to the cattle, or as they say—for a cow that has lost her quid. To bring this back they administer a portion of red herring, and mostly find the power of chewing the cud is restored to the poor animal.

populations. The proverbs of a people are its most genuine cardiphonia, the fireside communings of a nation, the deliverance of its collective wisdom on the subjects which most engross its thoughts. In Dutch proverbs the herring occupies the foremost place. The national importance of their fishery to the comfort and well-being of the country is illustrated in their,—*Herrings in the land, the doctor at a stand*. Their *Don't cry herrings till they are in the net* is the expression of a caution conveyed in a hundred shapes in other languages. There is a curious disparagement of the larger fish conveyed in their—*Big fish spring out of the kettle—Big fish devour the little ones—Great fishes break the net—Little fish are sweet*. Our English—*It's neither, fish, flesh, nor good red herring* is complimentary to the latter. An obsolete English proverb is that of *Luck in a bag, and then you may wink and choose, for the devil a barrel the better herring amongst the lot*. The Scotch proverb of, *Let ilka herring hing by its ain head*, smacks more of the latitude of the Yarmouth curing houses, but their *Dinna gut your herrings till you get them* is perfectly characteristic. *O' a fish i' the sea, herring is king*, is an old Scotch saying, another is, *It's but kindly that the pock savour of the herring*, of which, *'the cask still sairs o' the herring'* is a variation. A rhyming saw is that of—

If you would be a merchant fine.

Beware of o' auld horses, herring, and wine.

The first will die, the second stink, and the third turn sour. The Danish proverb, *Better a salt herring on your own table than a fresh pike on another man's*, is a homily upon contentment which the world is more apt to preach than listen to, and but sorry comfort can be extracted from their *Of bad debtors you may take spoilt herrings*. '*As straight as the backbone of a herring*,' is one of the proverbial sentences collected by Ray.* In the Isle of Man the two Deemsters or Judges, when appointed, declare they will render justice between man and man, "*As equally as the herring bone lies between the two sides*," an image which could not have occurred to any people unaccustomed to the herring fishery.

The herring has furnished the theme for a variety of similes, which abound in the works of our dramatists and slang writers. *Dead as a herring*; *Packed as close as herrings in a barrel*; *Scragg'd, lagg'd or sent across the herring pond*, the felon's irreverent Old Bailey formula for the terrors of the law, may be instanced. The sporting freak of laying hounds on a red herring

† Among the proverbial observations gathered by Ray, is an obscure one relating to its cookery—

"Red herring ne'er spake but e'en (once),

Broil my back, but not my weamb."

The bony stricture of the herring has supplied an appellation to herring bone masonry, courses of stone laid angularly, and to the herring-bone cross-stitch in seams, used chiefly in woollen work.

trail, on a blank or frosty day, has supplied that *caveto* to an enlightened public, which *decies repetita placebit*—not to be put upon a false scent, and distracted from the game in view. *A shotten herring* has passed into literature amongst the bye words of contumely. “If manhood, good manhood, be not forgot upon the face of the earth, then am I a shotten herring,” exclaims Falstaff. In Quevedo’s description of the ‘House of Famine,’ ‘the master was a skeleton—a mere shotten herring.’”

“Dismally shrunk, like herrings shotten,
Supposed originally rotten”—

writes Prior in his poem of *The Mice*.

Pennant has observed that it is very singular that most nations give the name of their favourite dish to the facetious attendant on every mountebank. Thus the Dutch call him Pickle Herring; the Italians, Maccaroni; the French, Jean Potage; the Germans, Hans Wurst; and the English dignify him with the name of Jack Pudding. ‘I have been,’ he adds, ‘in Holland at that happy minute when the first cargo of their ambrosia has been landed and observed as much joy among the inhabitants on its arrival, as the Egyptians shew on the first overflowing of the Nile. Fuller, discoursing on the designation of the Red Herring as a Yarmouth Capon, ‘of which capon,’ he adds, ‘I believe few, save what have more fins than feathers, are bred in Yarmouth,’ explains the origin thus:—‘the Italian Friars, when disposed to eat flesh on Fridays, call a capon, *piscem e corte*—a fish out of a coop. In Ireland, meat dipped into water, and christened by the name of St. Patrick’s Fish, is sometimes eaten on fast days.

*The Yarmouth visitor, unless an early riser, will have his morning slumbers disturbed by the street cries of the fish vendors, chanting—‘fresh herrin’, soles, turbot, brill, red mullet, haddocks, whitin’, all alive ’s mornen!’—in that modulated musical cadence which distinguishes the speech of this coast. But, on looking out, ‘nae weel-faured hizzie, with well-shaped shanks aneath her short yellow petticoat’ will greet his vision—the apparition will be that of a sturdy beachman in blue jersey and rabbit skin dolman. We hope our visitor understands fish, otherwise a bargain may be driven with him which would have struck Maggie Mucklebackit dumb with envy. Yarmouth sands and streets would be brightened up by the presence of a cohort of bonny fish wives, such as those whom John Wilson has dashed off in one of the grand bursts of his *Noctes*; * but it has not a popula-

* CHRISTOPHER NORTH.—“Hard working, contented, cheerful creatures, indeed, James, but unconscionable extortioners, and—

SHEPHERD.—“Saw ye them ever marchin, hamewards at nicht, in a band of some fifty or threescore, down Leith walk, wi’ the grand gas lamps illuminating their scaly creels, all shining like silver? * * * And, oh man, but mony o’ them hae musical voices, and their cries afar off make my heart strings dirr * * * and heard ye them ever singing their strange

tion like those of Edinburgh or the Hague to find them occupation; and selling herrings to the Yarmouth natives must be something not unlike 'carrying coals to Newcastle.' There is plenty, however, of the raw material. George the Fourth declared the Newhaven fishwives the handsomest specimens of their sex he had ever seen; but then he had never seen Yarmouth, and there are admirers of the Yarmouth beauties and the Yarmouth bloaters who will back them both against aught of the like which Scotland can produce. The landsman whose sea side holidays have led him to the coasts of France, to Scheveningen, to Mount's Bay, Cornwall, or along the Frith of Forth, will miss at Yarmouth the piquant charm which the presence of their fair *poissardes* confers upon those pleasant scenes. In our mental picture of his toils and perils the active presence of the fisherman's wife and family are almost unconsciously associated. At the Hague one watches with a kindly sympathy the women trudging along the shady road from Scheveningen under their burdens of fish, the more fortunate ones cheering onwards their active little dog carts, returning home in the cool evening, light-hearted, but heavy laden with bread, vegetables, and other wares, the produce of the sale or barter of their fish. That which seems so picturesque to the idle tourist is in reality a hard life, with little to sweeten it beyond the consciousness of active usefulness, though it is one for which many a poor sempstress would be glad to exchange her poor, dull, colourless existence.

Burton, in his *Anatomy of Melancholy*, discussing diet, quotes in commendation of sea fish Gomesius, an authority in whom one's faith later on gets terribly shaken, on finding him declaring that fishes 'pine away for love and wax lean.' Galen pronounces fish to be melancholy food, but seems to have been a dyspeptic critic somewhat hard to please, and condemning beef and mutton as open to the same objection. Besides he is flatly contradicted by Cicero, who affirms that for some distempers of the mind fish will be found a better prescription than philosophy. A writer of our sea-songs? * * * It gars me think o' the saut sea-faem,—and white mew wings wavering in the blast—and boaties dancin up and down the billow vales, wi' oar or sail,—and waes me—waes me,—o' the puir fishing-smack, gaun down head for most into the deep, and the sighin and the sobbin o' widows, and the wailin o' fatherless weans"—*Noctes Ambrosianæ*, No. 10).

Compare it with Scott's *Antiquary*, chap. xxvi.—"A whien poor drudges ye are," answered the nymph of the land to the nymph of the sea. "As sune as the keel o' the coble touches the sand, deil a bit mair will the lazy fisher loons work, but the wives maun kilt their coats, and wade into the surf to tak the fish ashore. And then the man casts aff the wat and puts on the dry, and sits down wi' his pipe and his-gill stoup ahint the ingle, like ony auld houdie, and ne'er a turn will he do till the coble's afloat again! And the wife, she maun get the scull on her back, and awa wi' the fish to the next burrows-town, and scauld and ban w' ilka wife that will scauld and ban wi' her till it's sauld—and that's the gait fisher-wives live, puir slaving bodies."

day has ingeniously sought to prove that Shakspeare was profoundly versed in medicine. We have not seen his book, and therefore do not know what weight of authority he attaches to Falstaff's declaration (2 Hen. iv., Act 4): "There's never any of these demure boys come to any proof; for their drink doth so over-cool their blood, and making many fish-meals, that they fall into a kind of male-green sickness; and then, when they marry, they get wenches."* Sir Toby Belch was of Sir John's way of thinking. 'A plague o' these pickle herrings!' is his drunken apostrophe to the disguised Viola. Whilst some writers have dwelt on the 'cold phlegm of a fish diet,' others have criticised its heating tendencies. 'To think on a red heering,' exclaims Nashe in his *Lenten Stuff*, 'such a hot stirring meat it is, is enough to make the cravenest dastard proclaim fire and sword against Spain. The most itinerant virgin wax phisnomy that taints his throat with the least rib of it; it will imbrawn and iron-crust his flesh, and harden his soft bleeding veins as stiff and robustious as branches of coral.'

Brillat Savarin in the chapter of his *Physiologie du Goût*, on the difference between a regimen *gras au maigre*, describes fish as containing a considerable quantity of phosphorus and hydrogen, the most combustible substances in nature. 'Whence it follows,' he adds, 'that ichthyophagy is a heating diet, a fact which ought to give value to the praises formerly bestowed on the religious orders, whose regimen was of a nature directly at variance to that of their vows. In a later chapter he observes, 'these physical verities were doubtless ignored by the ecclesiastical law-givers, who imposed the Lenten diet on the monkish communities. Doubtless,' he adds maliciously, 'under this state of things brilliant victories were carried off, rebellious senses bent into subjection; but, moreover, what falls! what defeats!' 'Fish, for the philosopher,' he observes further on, 'is an inexhaustible subject of meditation and astonishment—the varied forms of these strange animals, the senses which are wanting to them, the restricted nature of those granted them, and their diverse modes of existence. * * * For me, I feel towards them a sentiment which approaches respect, and which arises from the intimate persuasion which I hold, that they are creatures evidently antediluvian; for that grand catatylsm which drowned our great uncles

* Bearing on this moot point of physiology, we have an illustration recorded by Brillat Savarin.—"It is now some years back that I went to look at a country house, in a little hamlet, in the environs of Paris, on the banks of the Seine, consisting chiefly of fishermen's huts. Struck with the quantity of children I saw swarming about my route, I remarked my astonishment to the boatman who was ferrying me across the river. 'Monsieur,' replied he 'we are here eight families, and have fifty-three children, of whom forty-nine are girls and only four boys, and here's one who belongs to me. In saying these words, he raised himself erect with an air of triumph, and shewed me a little marmot of five or six years, couched at the fore part of the boat, amusing himself with crunching raw crayfish."

about the eighteenth century of the world's creation must have been for the fishes a season of joy, of conquest, and festivity.*

As regards the chemical constituents of the herring, it is a curious fact that the Cotton Famine, whilst its depressing influences have acted injuriously upon the herring fishery, diminishing fish consumption in the manufacturing districts and greatly enhancing the price of netting,† has originated an enquiry into the value of the herring as an article of diet, which ought, unless doomed to remain buried in the Blue Book which contains it,‡ to annihilate the popular prejudice against its nutritive properties. In December, 1862, Dr. Edward Smith was requested by the Privy Council to visit the chief towns of the cotton districts, and to report on the following questions.—1. The least cost per head per week at which the unemployed could be supported? 2. The most useful expenditure of a weekly minimum allowance spent in food? 3. Ditto, with a small extra allowance? He reported that the smallest sum, with food prepared in large quantities, would be 2s. each person over sixteen, 1s. 6d. over ten, and 1s. 3d. under 10 years of age. In reply to the second query, Dr. Smith enters into analyses of the nutritious properties of our ordinary diet.§ The proportion of carbon and nitrogen taken during the day should be 4300 grains of carbon and 200 of nitrogen.||

	Carbon. grains.	Nitrogen. grains.
1 lb. of bread . . . contains	1968	92
" oatmeal . . .	2768	140
" rice . . .	2688	70
" potatoes . . .	760	24
" sugar . . .	2768	—
" butter, fresh . . .	4704	—
" bacon, dry . . .	4753	96
" flesh meat, averages . . .	2540	160
" milk, skimmed. per pint . . .	438	43
" HERRINGS, dried . . .	1435	217½

It will be seen from the foregoing analyses how remarkably in excess of the proportion in our chief staple articles of diet is the

* The remains of Herring cookery, furnish one of the links of the chain of evidence adduced in the 'Antiquity of Man Controversy,' for Professor Ansted in his eighth Geological Lecture, session of 1862, inferred from the presence of the bones of herrings, and of other deep sea fishes in the kitchen middings, that those antedeluvians were sufficiently advanced in the art of civilization, to be able to go out to sea in boats,—and to make nets for catching fish.

† At the Mount's Bay, Cornwall, Sept., 1863, we were informed by the fishermen, that the greatly increased price of cotton nets would probably lead to their discontinuance in the pilchard fishery.

‡ Fifth Report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council, 1862.

§ These analyses were made by Messrs. Lawes and Gilbert, F.F.R.S. By some mistake the proportion of nitrogen in 1lb. of herrings is printed as 340 grains in their general table of analyses.

|| In the extracts subjoined below, we have sought to illustrate the nature of the functions exercised by Nitrogen in diet.—

"The food of animals, classed in two great forms, are non-nitrogenous, or respiratory food, namely, starch, sugar, gum, and oils; and nitrogenous

quantity of nitrogen which is contained in the herring. Nitrogen is a vital stimulant as well as a flesh-former. It is specially needed in the food of females, nursing mothers, the young and the old. A certain due proportion is required between the nitrogenous and carbonaceous elements of food taken into the system, though, as Dr. Smith remarks, 'chemistry has too sharply drawn the line between the heat-producing and flesh-forming foods, and physiology is now correcting that error, and showing that the two are materially dependent on each other.

or sanguigenous food, namely, albumen, fibrine, caseine. The former do not enter into the formation of the blood, save to a small extent. Fat, which is non-nitrogenous, is formed from starch, which first becomes sugar in the animal body. * * Our diet should contain a due admixture of sanguigenous and respiratory food, the former to supply the waste of the tissues, the latter to supply the animal heat. * * The amount of bodily or mental work done is measured by the daily waste of the tissues, muscular or nervous, and the daily food must contain, if health is to continue, exactly as much sanguigenous matter as will supply the daily waste. The respiratory food not only gives the animal heat by its oxidation, but protects against oxidation the blood and tissues."—GREGORY'S ORGANIC CHEMISTRY.

The flesh-forming foods are the nitrogenous or quadruple compounds, consisting chemically of carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen. These are vegetable fibrin, albumen, and casein, found in vegetables and grains, animal flesh, gluten in flour, casein in milk and cheese. The fat-forming foods are the non-nitrogenous or triple compounds, consisting chemically of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen. These are sugar, gum in flour, starch in flour, sago, fats, butter, alcohol in beer, wine, and spirits. As galactagogues, (to increase the secretion of milk,) a fish diet is useful, particularly whiting-soup, conger-eel soup, and those varieties which are rich in phosphorus, as oysters and crabs. I have repeatedly seen their good effects in practice.—

NOTE COMMUNICATED BY DR. T. H. BARKER.

"Carbonaceous, respiratory, or heat giving foods comprise a class of ingredients, such as starch, gum, sugar, and fat, containing carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen, the fourth element, nitrogen, being absent. They are of no use in building up the structure of the body, or in repairing its waste; they are in fact the FUEL which keeps up animal heat. The body of a man has a temperature of 98° Fahrenheit. This warmth results from the consuming of these substances in the body. A man inhales about 3000 gallons of air in 24 hours, in order to burn the daily amount of food fuel, containing about 10 oz. of carbon or charcoal. The products of combustion pass out by the month, just as they would fly up the chimney of an open fire, were the charcoal burned in it. Less food-fuel is required in hot weather than cold, in hot climates than in cold. Tropical foods contain 20 to 30 per cent of charcoal; Arctic blubber and fat, 80 to 90."—DR. LANKESTER.

It would seem therefore that a fish diet is a flesh and muscle, and not a fat producing diet; and this is confirmed by observation of our fishing and sea faring population, spare, sinewy, and strong, and free from the mountains of flesh, the blubber, the pot-bellied protuberances and other fatty deformities of your inland beef-eating Briton.

The nitrogen of the atmosphere, in relation to the respiratory process, is supposed to serve only mechanically, by diluting the oxygen, and moderating its action upon the system. It has often been discussed whether nitrogen be ever absorbed or exhaled from the atmosphere in respiration. That it may in some conditions, be either absorbed or exhaled has been proved by experiments. The lower animals, especially insects, are said to exhale nitrogen, and fishes to absorb it from the water in which they breathe, though they do not absorb hydrogen. (Humboldt.)

Having regard to their nutritive properties, Dr. Smith pronounces the cheapest foods to be—as a solid animal food, the herring—the cheapest fat, to be bacon—and as a food to be eaten constantly, milk to be one of the cheapest sources of nitrogen. His model dietary for the unemployed operatives is a breakfast of milk, oatmeal, bread, fat with bacon or herring if possible; and a dinner of meat, bacon, or herring, bread, vegetables, and cheese, or pudding; and a tea of tea, coffee, milk, oatmeal, bread and fat.

Fresh and salt herrings differ much in chemical composition on account of the dryness of the latter, the former being probably the best food. Fresh herrings contain 12 per cent. of carbon (or 14.3 per cent. with the hydrogen reckoned as carbon added,) and 1.83 per cent. of nitrogen; whilst dried herrings contain 20.5 per cent. of carbon, and 3.11 per cent. of nitrogen. One pound of fresh herrings therefore contains 840 grains of carbon and 128 grains of nitrogen. Fresh herrings contain about 70 per cent. of fluid. The amount of nutrition appropriated by the system from dried herrings will depend on their degree of saltiness, upon the digestive powers, and upon a proper and palatable mode of cookery.

We have already observed that the herring was unknown to the ancients, and has therefore no record in the classics. *Ulysses Aldrovandus* writing circa 1560, observes of herrings,—‘they have a soft fat flesh, and fried fresh in butter are delicate;’ and adds, ‘some use them (when the backbone is withdrawn,) with onions, apples, vinegar, and oil, also roasted, or watered, and broiled.’ *Moffet*, one of our early writers on diet, remarks, ‘that herrings are an usual and common meat for the nobility, as well as for the poor men, the former using them for varieties’ sake and wantonness, and the latter for the want of other food, and that it is the chief support of Lent.’ *Fuller*, moralising on red herrings, describes them in his day as ‘mostly eaten in England for sauce to quicken the appetite, and in Holland and elsewhere, for food to satisfy hunger.’ *Cogan*, in his *Haven of Health*, 1636, ‘written clearly for ‘persons of quality,’ observes ‘that as for salt herrings well watered or steeped in milk, they taste not ill after they are broiled, yet they give none or bad nourishment, saving to ploughmen or sailors, soldiers or labouring persons.’

In the ‘Northumberland Household Book,’ A.D. 1512, which reveals to us the nature of the provisioning of a great household of those days, a dietary consisting for many months in the year of salt meat and few vegetables, the herring figures as a dainty dish. The Lenten breakfast of my Lord and Lady was a loaf of bread in trenchers, two manchettes, a quart of beer, a quart of wine, two pieces of salt-fish, six baconed herrings, four white herrings,

or a dish of sprats. Writing in Lent, 1454, to her husband, Sir John Paston, Dame Margaret Paston informs him amongst other intelligence, that she had bought a horse load of herrings for 4s. 6d.

No English sovereign ever interested himself so thoroughly in legislating for all the contingencies of the daily intercourse of his subjects, as did Edward I. In accordance with what was deemed the wise political economy of his own and of later ages, the prices of the staple commodities of the realm were regulated. The prices of fish were fixed at—for best plaice, 1½d.; haddock, 2d.; John Doree, 5d.; conger, 1s.; turbot, 6d.; mackarel in Lent, 1d.; out of Lent, ½d.; best pickled herrings, 2 for 1d.; (this was before the alleged invention of curing by Beukeling, in 1397,) fresh herrings before Michaelmas, 6 for 1d.; after Michaelmas, 12 for 1d.; Thames or Severn lampreys, 4d.; oysters, 2d. gallon; sea hog or porpoise, 6s. 8d.; best eels, 2s. for 25; best fresh salmon, from Christmas to Easter, 5s.; after Easter, 3s.; smelts, 1d. per 100; pike, 6s. 8d. each.

By a statute of the same reign, it was forbidden to offer for sale any fish except salt-fish after the second day. By the city assize of fish, the profit of the London fishmongers was fixed at one penny in twelve. Fish were not to be watered oftener than twice a day, nor sold in an improper state for food. For a third breach of these regulations, the fishmonger was to be "jugyd to a payre of stockys openlie in the market place."

In a record of one of the Brewers' Company's Feasts, 1425, among other items priced, are 800 herrings, 10s. In the Northumberland House Book, 1512, among the stores are 9 barrels of white herrings at 10s. the barrel; 140 stock fish at 2½d.; 942 salt fish at 4d.; 104 score salt salmon at 6d.; 124 beeves at 13s. 4d. for 'fatt,' and 8s. 'leyn'; 667 muttons at 1s. 8d.; 25 porks, 2s.; 28 veills at 1s. 8d.; 60 lambs at 10d. and 1s.*

The London fishmongers, a powerful and wealthy fraternity, strove during several centuries to make a monopoly of the fish trade, both in buying up and retailing; frequently creating an artificial scarcity to keep up exorbitant prices; they endeavoured also to put down the 'billestrees' or street sellers—the precursors of the costermongers. Several Acts were passed to restrain them. *Felding* in the last of his works, *The Voyage to Lisbon*, inveighed bitterly against the fish monopolists of his day; 'thanks to whom' he says, 'the poor can eat sprats and herrings, but no other sort of fish. 'As a remedy I humbly submit,' he suggests, 'the

* One pound of English money reckoned by the weight of silver, was worth, A.D. 1290, 28, Ed. I, £3 1s. In 1425, 4, Hen. VI, £2 1s. In 1509, 1, Hen. VIII, £1 7s.

absolute necessity of immediately hanging all the fishmongers within the bills of mortality.*

The earliest records of the Paris fish merchants, dating as far back as the 12th century, describe them as chiefly dealing in herrings caught on the coast of Normandy; some of which were used fresh and some salted. The trade formed two distinct branches, the women connected with the latter were called 'harengères,' the former who dealt in fresh fish of all kinds, 'poissonnières.†

Of all fish that swim the sea, none has been more bountifully and abundantly supplied by a wise Providence for the sustenance of man than the herring; and, considering its cheapness, its excellent flavour and wholesomeness, no article of diet has undergone so absurd a proscription from the tables of the wealthy and great. That vile purse pride of the vulgar rich, which would fain protest with Peter that it had 'never eaten anything that is common,' has in this instance but obeyed with a servile fidelity the culinary edict which has banished the beautiful but plebeian fish from the *menu* of fashionable society. This ostracism of the herring is a thing of modern date, for turning over the leaves of our old cookery books, the reader will be surprised at the important place the red herring formerly occupied in the household *menage*, and the multiplicity of ways in which it was brought to table—stewed, potted, baked, boiled, roasted, fried, made into pies, soups, ragoûts, terrines, puddings, &c.; dressed with cabbage, pickled with mushrooms, boiled with carrots, dished the Italian way, the Spanish way, as Virginia trouts, *cum multis alitiis, quæ* &c., the choice offered to the gourmand is quite bewildering, whilst the recipes given for a variety of epicurean banquets on fresh herring roes, by Carême, prince of modern cooks, and others, would rouse the palled appetite of a Lucullus.

We have only to fall back on the most famous of the French

* An Act passed 1759, recited amongst other stringent regulations, that any person asking more than 6d. per lb. for turbot, under the size of 16 inches, were to be hauled by a constable before a justice of the peace, and fined 20s.

† The tongue of a Parisian *poissarde* cuts as keen as their sharpened knives, wrote Vadé, the laureat of those redoubtable viragos, 'the Dames de la Halle.' His muse inspired by their slang, scurrility, and coarse extravagant humour, enjoyed a short lived reputation in the Regency, and found a kindred spirit and imitator in De l'Ecluse. A superb edition of their 'Œuvres Poissardes,' published 1796, forms one of the most singular curiosities in Ichthyologic literature. There is a riotous mixture of fun and satire in De l'Ecluse's 'Inventory of Effects' found in the Magasin of one of the Harengères of the Halle. Amongst the numerous items are a cage, wherein fifty red herrings sing in B flat and fly about,—a lot of treatises printed in the moon, on the constancy of the French in dress, the good faith of the Italians, the humility of Spaniards and Gascons; the sobriety of Germans and Poles, the trustiness of the English, the cleanliness of the Irish, the politeness of Swiss and Flemings, the probity of Normands, the ruses of Picards, &c.

livres de cuisine, to those *collections gastronomiques* which have raised the art of cookery to the dignity of a science, to meet with repeated and emphatic condemnations of the prejudice which has debarred the herring from its rightful position. The most celebrated gastronomic writer and critic of modern times was *Grimod de la Reynière*, whose *Almanach des Gourmands* was the great oracle of our grandfathers on the art of dining.

It is to be regretted (*fâcheux*) he observes, that the red herring does not enjoy in general a reputation sufficiently exalted to gain it admission to the tables of the great, and that the ostentation of rich people has banished it to the cookery of the people. It wakes up the blasé appetite, it rouses vigorously the relaxed nerves. Served up as a *hors d'œuvre* (side-dish) it prompts one to do justice to the *entrées*; cut in small morsels and mixed with the salad it gives it piquancy. Moreover it has a variety of exceptional uses, and if taken with moderation ought never to be entirely banished the table. It has besides an excellent virtue, one, of which the wine imbibor gratefully admits the value—it excites thirst, and renders him indulgent as to the quality of the wine. From all this one may conclude that maugre its defects—the red herring, like many people of merit, is of a much greater value than its ordinary reputation.

Breteuil writes in his *Cuisinier Européen*, 'The herring is the least esteemed of sea fish, for the sole reason that it is abundant, and at a low price a part of the year. If it were but scarce and dear, it would be admitted to the best tables on the same rank as fish the most *recherché*, for it is of good flavour and of easy digestion. In maritime countries it is *mauvais ton* to serve up herrings at good tables, excepting at the very commencement of the fishery, towards the end of the month of August, because at that season it is still rare, and of a price sufficiently dear; but it then possesses not those gastronomic qualities which it acquires later, hence the Norman proverb, *Never yet did gourmand eat good herring*. The true season for herring does not commence in fact until the middle of September.

'Fresh herring,' writes *Gogué* in his *Secrets de la Cuisine Française*, "is an excellent fish, and one on which much greater store would be set, if it were but less common and much dearer."

No English writer has discussed the art of dinner giving, with more good sense than the late Mr. Walker, the police magistrate, in his remarkable book, *the Original*, or criticised with greater freedom their formality of invitation, and the stately unenjoyable style in which they are too often carried out. His model invitation of a style of dinner-giving within almost everybody's reach, and which would induce a constant flow of easy hospitality instead of a system of formal parties, "few and far between," is, "Can you dine with me, to-morrow?—I shall have herrings, hashed mutton,

and cranberry tart. My fishmonger sends me word herrings are just in perfection, and I have some delicious mutton, in hashing which I shall direct my cook to exercise all her art. I intend the party not to exceed six, and observe we shall sit down to table at half-past seven." He adds, "a simple dinner well served to a party of a similarity of taste, cannot fail to have peculiar success; it makes perfect the union. These snug little parties, I must confess, have very much the air of being confined to bachelor ones, but I think them equally applicable to a mixture of the sexes. Ladies are very apt to suppose that men enjoy themselves the most when they are not present. They are in a great measure right, but for a wrong reason. It is not that men prefer their own to a mixture of female society, but that females delight in a number of observances, and in forms upon some of which I have already touched, and upon a certain display and undeviating order which conspire to destroy that enjoyment which they seem to think they are debarred from. The fault is their own. If they will study my doctrines, and fall a little into the herring and hashed-mutton system, they will soon find a difference in their favour. In their management of dinners, let them think only of what contributes to real enjoyment. Such a system will afford them plenty of scope for the display of their taste in realities, instead of in vanities, which have no charms for men in the article of conviviality. Side-dishes, centre-pieces filled with flowers, and such encumbrances and impediments are fatal to it. They may make their election but they cannot have both." Golden words, but preached to deaf ears. The series of papers on the 'Art of Dining' by Mr. Walker, are confessedly the most important contribution to gastronomic literature in our language, but have they effected a hair's breadth of reform, and has not the routine of a dinner party become more stereotyped, more inevitable than ever. How many dinner givers have the moral courage to place upon the table a dish of 'caller herrin'?

"Dainty food, and wholesome faring."

The herring has experienced in our literature the same depreciation and neglect as in our cookery. It has not been so much a disparagement as a contemptuous omission, an ignoring of its existence, a treatment proverbially hard to bear. We may cite two striking illustrations of this: Dr. Johnson visited the Hebrides, at a time when although the herring fisheries along the western shores of Scotland, were in a drooping condition, the sanguine schemes for the prosecution of it on the East Coast by public companies, excited the liveliest interest in London,—but beyond a brief reference to a local superstition on its capture, there is not a single allusion to the herring either in his journal or his letters to Mrs. Thrale, or in the lengthy record of the same visit made by his follower, Boswell. And yet Johnson

professedly examined and described with care, the social condition of the population of the Hebrides. Stranger still, is the omission of the herring from the writings of Crabbe, the poet of our East Coast, who has photographed with a truthfulness which is marvellous in its sharpness of detail, the occupations of the poor. The fisherman is there, his wife and children, boat and nets, but not his silver shining prize.

Of the position which the herring occupies in the literature of Holland—a language apparently as sealed to us as that of Japan—the writer confesses with great regret his ignorance. But the Dutch have ever exhibited to the world an honest manly pride in their pickle-herring, and doubtless their poets have sung its praises. It has come down to us on some of the choicest canvasses of their painters, lighting up the back ground of the little grocery store where some thrifty *menagère* is bargaining, or placed more boldly in the foreground, its gleaming lustre attracts the eye to dwell upon the patient cunning which wrought such triumphs of still life. We find them frequently introduced in the pictures of Mieris, Metzu, and Slingelandt, and these niggling masters have elaborated them with a surprising care. Grateful as we feel to the writer of *Modern Painters* for the many wise and noble thoughts on art with which he has enriched the world, we decline to enlist in his crusade against Dutch art. Like the writer of *Adam Bede* we plead guilty to the contemplating “with a delicious sympathy those faithful pictures of a monotonous homely existence, which has been the fate of so many more among my fellow mortals, than a life of pomp, with their lovingly-finished accessories of cheap common things, which have been to them the precious necessities of life.” * There is no spot in Europe with which the haunters of picture galleries are more unconsciously familiar, thanks to the Van de Velde and Backhuysen, than the sandhills and the beach of Scheveningen, enlivened with its fleets of herring schuyts. At the Manchester Art Treasures Exhibition was one of the finest works of Wouwermans, belonging to Mr. Holford, representing ‘*La Course au hareng*,’ a crowd of peasants in front of an alehouse, engaged in the Dutch amusement

• “Paint us an angel if you can, with a floating violet robe, and a face paled by the celestial light; paint us yet oftener a Madonna turning her mild face upwards, and opening her arms to welcome the divine glory; but do not impose on us any æsthetic rules which shall banish from the regions of art those old women scraping carrots with their work-a-day hands; those heavy clowns taking holiday in a dingy pothouse; those rounded backs and stupid weather beaten faces that have bent over the spade and done the rough work of the world; those homes with their tin-pans, their brown pitchers, their rough curs, and their clusters of onions. In this world there are so many of these common coarse people, who have no picturesque sentimental wretchedness! It is so needful we should remember their existence, else we may happen to leave them quite out of our religion and philosophy, and frame lofty theories which only fit a world of extremes.”

of that name. A number of them on horseback with women up behind, are trying, whilst at full gallop, to snatch a herring suspended by a hook.

We have been preluding perhaps as long as our readers' patience will bear with us, but before marshalling our recipes for cooking the herring, a few words upon its purchase may be desirable. In choosing fresh herrings it is a mistake to select, as an invariable rule, the largest fish. Neither the genuine Yarmouth bloater, or the still more dainty 'long shore herring are large fish. "Watch a fisherman choosing herrings for his own use," said an old pilot to us, on the South pier, some years ago. "He puts aside the larger fish and picks out the middle-sized, the best and sweetest flavoured fish." The remark struck us, and we have on several occasions since put the question to fishermen and beachmen, and always with the same reply. 'Choose short and thick red herrings,' writes *Carine*. 'The fresh herring should be chosen soft roed,' observes *Gogue*, in his *Secrets de la Cuisine Francaise*, 'firm to the touch, the scales shining, the eyes projecting from the head, the body short rather than long.' 'The natural colours of herring, mackarel, and whiting, when newly caught and in good condition, observes *Miss Acton* in the most sensible of all cookery books, 'will be very distinct, and their whole appearance glossy and fresh. The herring when first taken from the water is of a silvery brightness; the back of the mackarel of a bright green, marked with black stripes, but this becomes of a coppery colour as the fish grow stale.*

Red herrings should look very bright and shine like burnished metal, and be thoroughly stiff, not limp, or dull in colour, or soft and broken about the belly parts. Salted herrings require properly soaking in water before being dressed. It is the neglect of this which has mainly occasioned the prejudice against red herrings as an article of diet, as being salt, hard, and unpalatable. Before cooking they should have boiling water poured over them, and be allowed to remain in it for some time. If high dried, half-an-hour will not be too long. French cooks allow a much longer time. Red herrings are sometimes prepared by being steeped in boiling beer, in which they are allowed to remain until the liquid becomes cold. The strong odour of the herring, when boiled or fried may be removed by stripping off the skin, under which lies the oil which occasions it.

It is in November, writes the *Almanach des Gourmands* that
 • "Herrings differ very much from each other in point of relative goodness. The male fish are always the best; and may be detected by their superior size and depth of body, particularly when the spawning time draws near, the male being always more turgid with the milt, than the female is with spawn. The bright silvery appearance and firm adhesion of the scales, is the best proof of freshness. If the sides look dull, and a redness appears about the gills and abdomen, the fish is stale."—So writes PISCATOR ON THE CHOICE AND COOKERY OF FISH, 1854.

fresh herrings arrive in Paris, and then they are *vraiment bons*; for after St. Catherine's Day it is useless to seek for them with roes, which, as is well-known, are the most noble and delicate parts of the herring, and which alone serve as a passport for their admission to the tables of the great. The common mode of dressing them, is cooked on the gridiron, accompanied with melted butter, sharpened with mustard. But it is essential to observe that the fish only requires to see the fire to be cooked. It is truly disobliging it, and, worse than that, drying it up, if one leaves it long enough to repeat a *Paternoster*. An *Ave Maria* will suffice. To cook it, one need place it like the Emperor Guatimozin for but a few instants over the lighted coals. You may eat fresh herrings also *en matelotte*, properly dressed, but whatever fashion, it will only be as a *hors d'œuvre*, for the herring has not the pretensions to be raised to the dignity of an *entrée*. Pickled herring appears occasionally at grand tables, but solely in the salad, cut in very small morsels, when it takes the place of anchovies, and imparts to the dish a piquant agreeable flavour. It then appears set down in the *menus* under the name of *salad aiguisée*.

A *hors d'œuvre*, we may inform those of our readers unversed in gastronomy, is a side dish. Under this definition range a host of kickshaws, *quelque choses*, vegetable and animal, pastry, preserved fruits, potted meats, compôtes, sardines, anchovies, and such like, dishes of which that great authority we are quoting, affirms, that any grand dinner served without them would be as ill got up as a pretty woman without rouge—convenient trifles which interpose between the *entrées*, to stimulate the appetite and promote digestion, and which enable the *gourmand*, in jockey phraseology, to indulge himself with 'a pull' between his more arduous labours. Your true *gourmand*, adds this severe critic, looks down upon them as injurious distractions from his rapt devotions to the great *pièces de resistance*, but graciously tolerates their presence in consideration of the partiality which the fair sex evince for them, *ces petits plats* serving them as a distraction, enabling them also to admire their pretty fingers, and to amuse their appetites without surcharging their stomachs.

In the foregoing extract, taken from his first volume, *M. Grimod de la Reynière* is somewhat austere in his criticisms on the herring; but in a later volume, and doubtless after he had submitted its pretensions to that *jury degustateur* which he instituted as an Amphytrionic council to aid his arduous labours, a more favourable verdict was returned. Part of this we have already given a few pages back. He adds to it a recipe, introducing it to his readers, with all that warmth of virtuous complacency which your true benefactor of his species, the discoverer of a new dish, is so justly entitled to exhibit.

"There is a means of obtaining from the herring a *hors d'œuvre*

which both adds to its qualities, and masks a part of its drawbacks. This dish is at once both excellent and of the simplest preparation, one of which any amateur may enjoy the gratification at his own fireside, and make of it his breakfast on those days when a grand dinner awaits him, which will naturally necessitate an extraordinary dose of appetite.

Taking a large sheet of paper doubled, a case is made of it of a size to contain eight herrings. This is carefully buttered within and without. Choose eight fine red herrings. Cut off the heads and tails, strip off the skin and backbone, then, when carefully prepared, divide them lengthways, to form two fillets. Place them in the case, putting between each fillet a morsel of fresh butter, mixed with sweet herbs, some mushrooms, parsley, shallots, pepper, and olive oil, sprinkle them pretty thickly with bread crumbs, and broil slowly over a gentle fire, taking care the paper does not burn, in which they must be served while very hot, with lemon juice squeezed over them. When prepared with care, this *hors d'œuvre* is a delicious morsel. This mode of cooking herrings is in use at Brussels. The receipt was carried to Paris, by M. Dublin, a young actor of the Comédie Française. "We request our honourable readers," adds the *Almanach des Gourmands*, "to make trial of this recipe in one of those moments of leisure, when the imagination loves to create new enjoyments for the stomach, and we will venture to believe that they will thank us for calling their attention to it."

An admirable series of recipes for herring cookery, is given in the *Cuisinier Européen* of Breteuil, a work which ranks high among the modern works of its class. We quote from it the following:—

Fresh Herrings Grilled.—Having gutted the herrings through the gills, without opening the bellies,—and scaled, washed and dried them, place them on a dish, powder them lightly with fine salt and herbs, cut small, and sprinkle on a little olive oil. They should remain an hour in this seasoning, and be turned over two or three times. Remove them from the dish without drying, make a small incision along the back, and then cook the herrings upon the gridiron over a moderate fire, turning them over at least three times. Serve up with melted butter and a spoonful of capers. Occasionally, on serving up, a spoonful of mustard is added to the sauce.

The herrings may also be sprinkled with flour, and basted with a little fresh butter. Serve without sauce or with either indicated above; or with a purée of peas, lentil, or beans.

Fresh Herrings en Matelotte.—Choose six or eight fine herrings, if possible, half with milts and half with roes. Gut them through the gill openings, cut off the heads and tails, and cut lengthwise each herring in two parts; sprinkle each morsel with a little fine

salt and pepper. Place in a stewpan a little fresh butter, stiffened with flour, a little parsley, and some shalots minced fine. Place the herring slices on this dressing, sprinkle it with two or three glasses of red wine, and cook it over a hot fire. Have in readiness to remove when the matelot is cooked, a dozen of small onions, and a score of little mushrooms, cut small. Fry some bread crumbs, to garnish round the dish on which the herrings are served up.

The excellence of fish *à la matelotte* is certified by the most fastidious of modern gastronomic critics, *Brillat Savarin*.—"Fish," he writes, "in the hands of a skilful preparer, may become an inexhaustible source of gustatory enjoyment; one may serve it up entire, dismembered, piecemeal; in water, oil, or wine; hot or cold; and in every case it is equally well received,—but it never meets a more distinguished reception, than when it appears in the form of a *matelotte*, (a mixture of fish, sailor fashion). This *ragoût*, though imposed by necessity on the seamen who traverse our waters, and to be had in perfection solely amongst the *Cabaretiers* on the sea coast, has a goodness which nothing can surpass, and fish-epicures can never witness its appearance without expressing their raptures, whether because of the excellence of its flavour, of its uniting a variety of merits, or lastly, because one can eat of it almost indefinitely, without fear of satiety or indigestion."

Red Herrings, grilled.—Open, and steep in milk to remove their saltiness, for 12 hours. Dry them, and then cook over a moderate fire, turning over two or three times. Serve up with olive oil, or with slices of bread and butter. Herrings are served up in this way for breakfast and lunch.

The herring is also one of the resources of Lent cookery and *jours maigres*, when fresh fish are wanting, and from hence has been surnamed, *le jambon de carême*, (Lent ham,) and also *le jambon de gueux*, (beggars' bacon,) from its low price. Nevertheless, by the aid of the receipts above, the smoked herring may be rendered worthy to appear on fast days at the best regulated tables.

Red Herrings, marinés.—(Pickled.) Steep twelve hours in milk, drain them, wipe dry, and then place them several minutes in the following *marinade*. Cut, as small as possible, two or three mushrooms, raw, with a pinch of parsley and another of shalot; Dilute the whole with sufficient olive oil, to steep the herring in. The cooks of the south of France add to this a slight infusion of garlic. Remove the herrings from the marinade, cover with bread-crumbs until they are well soaked, then grill them, turning over two or three times. Serve up with slices of bread and butter.

Red Herrings, à la Saint Menehould.—Place in a stewpan some butter, add a spoonful of flour, a cup of milk, a sprig of laurel, another of thyme, and a little pepper. Open the herrings,

and cook them in this seasoning, when done, withdraw them from the sauce, drain them and leave them to get cold. Pass them then over lukewarm butter, and sprinkle well with crumbs. Place the herrings thus prepared in a stew pan, in a hot oven, leave them there to take a bright colour, serve up hot, without sauce, or with an egg sauce seasoned with herbs, in a separate dish, to which a little olive oil and lemon juice may be added.

A dish, bearing some resemblance to the famous Irish Barmecidal repast of 'potatoes and point,' is the *Ragout du bon Eveque*, an economical receipt used in Picardy and Artois. Its invention is attributed to a Bishop of St. Omer, who made large distributions of it among the poor of his diocese.

Fry in lard five or six herrings cut in pieces, without steeping to remove the salt; when well reddened, mix up with them a bunch of leeks, sliced up. Boil a pot full of large mealy potatoes, mash them well up, and add to them the morsels of fried herring and leeks or onions. This mixture forms a savoury and nourishing mess.

Salt Herring as a hors d'œuvre.—Steep well in water several times during 24 hours, to remove the salt. Each herring is then cut in strips, which are pieced together on the dish, as if the fish were entire.

In this last, the herring is not indulged with a sight of the fire. We have seen it thus brought on the table, at the *table d'hôtes* of the Hague, Amsterdam, and North Germany. A variation of the above is to skin and soak them in milk and water, then drain and dish them with slices of onions and apples. They are eaten with oil.

Red Herrings, à l'Italienne.—Pour on boiling water and well soak the salt out; open and clean them, flour them well inside and out, fry them in butter and oil, serve on fried parsley.

A few simple recipes which correspond with those chiefly in use in England, are to found in *Gogue's Secrets de la Cuisine Francaise*.

Fresh Herrings, grilled.—Gut and scale them, drain and wipe them dry. Place the gridiron on the fire, and whilst it is hot place the herrings on, keeping up a clear fire. When grilled, lay them hot on a dish, split open their backs, and in the opening pour in a little cold butter.

Fresh Herrings grilled with mustard sauce.—Grill the herrings as before. Make a white sauce, to which you add, without placing it again on the fire, a teaspoonful of mustard, with a little chopped parsley, and pour it over the fish.

Pickled Herrings.—Steep for ten or twelve hours in water to remove the salt, dry them, oil them, and cook on a gridiron as before. Serve them with a purée of peas or lentils.

Red Herrings.—Cut off their heads, split in two, and soak well in a plate of olive oil, and then place on the gridiron for two or three minutes only.

From the variety of recipes already quoted, it will be seen that the cookery of the herring has been deemed worthy the skill of the best French culinary *artistes*. The illustrious Carême—the most distinguished professor of the *haute école* of modern cookery—has not disdained to exercise his genius in devising new and costly recipes for heightening its natural relish, and imparting an added piquancy to its delicate flavour. From his great work,* the richest repertory of artistic cookery extant, we have selected four recipes.

Fresh Herrings, (from Carême).—Choose 12 fine fresh herrings, scale them without injuring the flesh, open the bellies and remove the roes, milt, and intestines, wipe the fish with a cloth, without washing them; next, season the milt or roes with a little salt, pepper, and grated nutmeg, and replace them inside the herrings. Cut off the tails and heads. Place the fish in an earthen dish, with salt, pepper, chopped parsley, sliced onions, and olive oil, turning them over and over in this seasoning, and then withdraw them, rub them well with oil on both sides and lay them on a gridiron, equally well oiled; place them over a bright fire, not too hot, keeping it to a lively heat. In grilling thus, the herrings will colour a beautiful yellow. When coloured on one side, raise them, oil the gridiron afresh, and place the herrings on to complete the other side. Serve up with mustard sauce, or *maitre d'hotel*, or a *sauce remoulade*.

Fresh Herrings, à la Ravigote verte, (from Carême).—Dress 12 fresh herrings as in the preceding, score them lightly on both sides, steep them in the seasoning described in last, and at the moment before cooking withdraw them from it. Flour them lightly, and put them in a frying-pan with oil; as soon as they have imbibed it and are firm to the touch, let them drain. Serve up with a garnish of fried parsley of a rich green, and a sauce of melted butter, *à la Ravigote verte*.

* Carême's *L'Art de la Cuisine Française*, au *xix* siècle, 5 vol., 8vo., 1833-49. Carême was the Napoleon of cooks, the true utterer of the famous mot ascribed to his great contemporary. His biographer writes—"Quand on lui disait, 'Ce sera difficile, peut-être impossible,' il répondait, 'Rayez ce mot.'" The Empire, when Napoleon was at the pinnacle of his greatness, required a genius as vast, as daring as Carême's, fitly to commemorate its triumphs. To grace the banquets of its memorable fêtes he designed what he has rightly named his '*extraordinaires uniques*.' The career of Carême is the most brilliant recorded in the annals of the *cordons bleus*. He was successively chef de cuisine to Prince Talleyrand, whose dinners were the trump cards of his astute diplomacy; and of George IV when Prince Regent, and later when king. Subsequently he entered the service of the Emperor Alexander. From St. Petersburg he passed to Vienna, where he became attached to the English Embassy, and was also called in to design the grand dinners of the Emperor Francis. The presence of Carême was found indispensable by the Royal diplomats at the Congresses of Aix-la-Chapelle, Laybach, and Verona. His later years were spent in the service of Jerome, Prince of Wurtemberg, of the Princess Bagration, and, lastly, of M. Rothschild of Paris, where he closed his career treated with a royal munificence.

Fresh Herrings, à la Creole, (from Carême).—Prepare 12 herrings as before, placing the milts or roes in an earthen pan, with salt, pepper, and lemon juice. Put in a saucepan some good oil, minced carrots, chalots, parsley, thyme, basil, bay leaves, two cloves, one or two sprigs of sweet marjoram, a clove of garlic, a pinch of salt, *une idée* of cayenne pepper, when these ingredients begin to redden, gently moisten them with half a bottle of white Bordeaux wine, and let them simmer for a quarter of an hour, then squeeze and pour into a stewpan large enough to hold 12 herrings. As soon as the mixture begins to boil, place the herrings in. Cook over a gentle fire or over a stove. A quarter of an hour will suffice to cook the herrings. An instant before cooking the herrings, you will have washed 6 oz. of rice, place it on the fire with double its bulk of water, and a pinch of salt; boil it until the water is dried, and the rice yields under the pressure of the finger; add then 2 oz. of butter, a teaspoonful of powdered saffron, mix this and the butter well with the rice, place it on the fire, and surround the stewpan with red coals. A quarter of an hour or twenty minutes will suffice for the entire cookery,—by that time the rice should be firm and the grains detached, although soft. Let the herrings drain before serving up, lightly crumble bread over the milts or roes, and fry them in oil to garnish round the herrings. Mix a spoonful of flour with two small *plats* of butter, to stiffen the dressing of the herrings, from which you will have drained the fat. Add citron juice and send up boiling. Send up at the same time the rice in a separate dish.

Red Herrings à la Dauphin.—(Carême).—Remove the heads, tails, and backbone, soak if high dried in warm milk and water, drain and wipe dry. Dissolve a large slice of fresh butter and mix with it the beaten yolks of two eggs, and some savoury herbs minced small; dip the fish into these, and spread them thickly with fine bread crumbs; broil them a clear brown over a moderate fire, and serve on hot buttered toast, sprinkled with a little cayenne.

But it is in the most aristocratic of recent *Manuels de Cuisine*,—*La Cuisine classique de l'Ecole Française, appliquée au service à la Russe*, par M. M. Dubois et Bernards, 2 vol. 4to., 1856—that we shall find the acme reached of herring cookery. We extract a recipe, in which the herring is literally 'embalmed in spicery,' and served up '*avec perfectionnements précieux*,' worthy the 'brave conceptions' of Sir Epicure Mammon:—

"Drest with an exquisite and poignant sauce;
Instead of salads, oil'd mushrooms,
For which I'll say unto my cook—there's gold,
Go forth! and be a knight."—ALCHEMIST.

Herrings, farcis à la Rubens.—Cut off the heads, gills, and tails of 15 fresh herrings, open at the back to take out the skeletons, salt them lightly inside, spread equally over the milt a *sauce*

*durcelle** in which is mixed some spoonfuls of fine *farce*.† Spread a layer of this inside each herring, close them and coat their outsides with the same stuffing. Next soak them with yolks of egg, beaten up with butter, and strew over fine bread crumbs; lay them in a buttered dish and cook them in an oven for a quarter of an hour. Let them drain on a cloth, and serve them up, dressed *en couronne*, with a mincemeat of *champignons à la Provençale*,‡ and serve up separately a tomato sauce.

Throughout North Germany 'Mynheer Pickel-herring' is a welcome visitor at the most distinguished tables, and a favourite with all classes. As in Holland, so here—there is no dainty more highly esteemed than the freshly caught and lightly pickled herring. Eaten raw, with hot boiled beans, it forms a standing dish at the *tables d'hôte*, but is too costly at the beginning of the season, the common price in the shops for these new 'frische heringen' being about two shillings each. For a few German recipes, we will turn to the highest modern authority, the *Kochbuch*, of Hauptner, Hofküchenmeister of the King of Prussia, and chairman of the association for teaching cookery to ladies. Many of his receipts corresponding with the French and English ones already given, we quote those only which are distinctive of German cookery.§ The one in most general use is that of—

Marinerte Heringe.—Wash well, and steep in water for several hours, your salted herrings. Cut open their bellies and clean

* *SAUCE DURCELLE*.—Cut and wash some mushrooms, squeeze them in a cloth, add parsley and shallot, and truffles when in season, place in a stewpan with some butter, warm them over a fire, with half a bottle of white French wine, season with salt, pepper, spices, nutmeg, a sprig of bay, and a little garlic. Let it thicken down to a glaze, taking care to keep stirring it; add a few spoonfuls of sauce allemande, (rich gravy sauce with yolk of eggs added and spiced).—*LE CUISINIER IMPÉRIAL*.

† *FARCE DE POISSONS*.—Fish stuffing, made by cutting very small some mushrooms, truffles, parsley, small onions, a little bread soaked in milk, a little butter and yolk of eggs. Of this a force meat is made, well seasoned with salt, pepper, spices.—*LE CUISINIER DES CUISINIERS*.

‡ *CHAMPIGNONS À LA PROVENÇALE*.—Pick, wash, and drain some small mushrooms, cutting them in halves and laying them in oil, seasoned with pepper, salt, and garlic. Fry them in olive oil over a good fire; when of a good colour, add two spoonfuls of chopped parsley, a dozen small sops of soft bread, squeeze a little lemon juice over, and serve up.—*LE CUISINIER IMPÉRIAL*.

• The same causes which led to a growing disuse of fish in England have been at work on the Continent. The lax observance of fish days in Catholic Germany has greatly reduced fish consumption there. Baron Kohl, in his 'Austria,' has set down a fishmonger's lament over the good old times.

"In former times," said an old dealer in fish to me, "there often came fifteen or sixteen waggons laden with fish to Vienna, and now they call out as if it were a wonder if only two or three come in one after the other. My late father, who lived in the good times, used to bring three or four hundred measures of sprats at once to market, and I, his son and successor, think myself extremely lucky if I can get rid of thirty, so much are the times changed. Formerly, I mean about forty or fifty years ago, people had some

them. Pack them in layers with chopped onions and slices of lemon with the pips removed, and put them together with some spice in a glass or china jar; strew over them small pieces of lemon peel and laurel leaves, and pour over all some good wine vinegar. Close the top of the jar air-tight with bladder, and put by for use. The herrings should be consumed within fourteen days, and their place in the pickle may be supplied by fresh ones.

If preferred, before placing the herrings in the pickle, they can be roasted (after they have been cleaned,) in butter or oil, well done on both sides.

Herrings are also steeped in milk, cut lengthwise in two slices, the bones removed, then laid in water, and afterwards wiped quite dry, peppered and covered with a layer of butter and bread crumbs, and roasted or baked.

Red Herrings, Marinés.—Hors d'œuvre.—Take the flesh of your herrings, wash them in boiling water, dry them with a cloth, when cold, sousé them in oil and serve up like anchovies.

Herrings en papillottes.—Open them and wash out well, scale them, and remove the back and side bones, then cut them lengthwise into two long slices. Mix very finely cut parsley, shalots, butter, onions, and estragon in butter, and stew them; then cover the herrings with this mixture on both sides, roll them up in white paper and roast on a gridiron on a low fire. Serve up in the papillottes.

regard for religion and fast-days, and I know some great houses where on Fridays not as much meat was allowed as would go on the point of a knife. And then the convents in Vienna, what a consumption of fish was there! There were the Carmelites, the Augustines, the Minorites, the Barbarites, and all the rest of them! I recollect there was one convent where the monks used to fast the whole year through, and where we used to carry the most delicate kinds of fish by cart-loads. But that's all over now. The great people don't trouble themselves about fasting and eating fish, and even the monks are grown more impious."

"And then many changes in housekeeping have done a great deal of mischief to us fish-dealers. Formerly in most great houses the servants used to be fed by their masters, and then it was more with fish than with meat, which was dearer. Now the domestics have become more independent, they have more wages and feed themselves, and like better to eat flesh than fish. Formerly, a counsellor's lady would go herself to the market to buy fish; now she leaves all that to the cook, who is become a greater lady than the Court Counsellorress, and people choose rather to buy from the game-market than from us. Then folks are all more disorderly and extravagant than they used to be. Once even poor folks would leave so much behind them that their children might at least have their dish of fish at the funeral—now they leave nothing but debts, with which the devil himself could buy no fish. In old times at every dinner some choice fish was always amongst the chief dishes—it is not so now. The Lichtenstein seldom gives a dinner, the Kollowrat only once a month. But such noblemen as old Zichy (God bless his memory), he used plenty of fish, liked it well, and knew when it was good—there are no such men now—at least not in Vienna, and it seems almost as if people thought God had put the fish in the water for nothing."

Red Herrings en robe de chambre.—Cut them lengthwise in two halves, remove the bones, and steep in milk to take out the saltiness. Next wipe them dry with a cloth, smear them well on both sides with a fish stuffing of herbs, parsley, shalots, small onions sliced, &c.; when thus enveloped, wrap each separately in buttered puff paste, so that the form of the herrings is preserved, rub well the outside with egg, and bake in an oven.

Hors d'œuvre, new salt Herrings with pickled cucumber.—Wash well and scale them, cut open the bellies, take out the intestines with a knife, put back again the milt or roe, and cut the herrings across in four or five strips, not disarranging the form of the fish. Decorate the dish with vine leaves, and then lay on the herrings in the middle, and the pickled cucumbers on each side.

A very common and favourite German dish is the following:—

Herring Salad.—The herrings and green stuff having been well washed, the fish boned and cut in small cubes, place them in a bowl with cold boiled potatoes, veal, and raw apples. The addition of capers will be an improvement. Add salt and pepper, portions of veal cut into dice, fine Provence oil, good wine vinegar, and if possible some Paris tarragon vinegar. Mix the above well together, and dress up neatly. This dish admits of a variety of decoration with capers, boiled eggs, sardines, and beet-root, and may be wreathed round with a garland of herbs or of cress salad.

In the *jeunesse orangeuse* of German Student Life this herring salad has its place. It enjoys the reputation of being a sovereign remedy for that throbbing, tingling, twingeing sensation of brain and nerves, which after a night of heavy potations at their *commers-hauser*, or drinking-houses, wakes up the muddled Burschen to undergo the retribution known in student slang as the *katzon-jammer*, or lamentation of cats. Taken freely it *bringt der Burschen auf der damm*, picks them up out of the ditch and sets them upon the dike again.* A common German simile is, 'as thin as a herring;' and to decry that parched-pea alacrity, to which your thin mortal is so uncomfortably prone, his heavy neighbours inflict upon him the queer compound epithet of *spatz-häring*—sparrow-herring!

The Norwegian herring—besides furnishing with stock-fish, rusks, and rye-bread, the staple dietary of the hardy peasantry of Scandinavia,—is very largely consumed along the shores of the Baltic. A considerable proportion are smoked and subjected to the Yarmouth mode of cure. Most of the Swedish receipts for its cookery resemble those of North Germany. We select two which vary from what have been already given.

* We have a dim recollection of encountering years ago in the prose or verse of Byron a recommendation of 'red herrings and soda water' as a restorative after a debauch.

*Herring Pasty.**—Take salt herrings that have been steeped in milk, and cut them in halves. Add some dried cod-fish cut in strips, and lay both for three nights in water, turning them over from time to time. Take then the milt or roe of the herrings, chop it fine, mix it with bread crumbs, pepper, and sliced onions. Put some melted butter in a stewpan, when melted add the above to it. Let it stew a little, pour afterwards some gravy or water thereon, add to it the cod-strips, and let them stew altogether, and then cool. Dry the herrings with a cloth, and lay them in a dish, adding the strips of cod, and pouring the sauce over them. Then place in some fish stuffing, and cover the pie and brim of the dish with paste. Bake it, and when firm prick some holes in, and let the pie thoroughly bake.

A Swedish recipe for an admirable herring salad is given in the later editions of Miss Acton's Cookery.

"An excellent Herring Salad.—(Swedish Receipt.)—Soak, skin, split, and bone a large Norway herring; lay the two sides along a dish, and slice them slopingly (or substitute for this one or two fine Dutch herrings). Arrange in symmetrical order over the fish slices, of cooked beet root, cold boiled potatoes, and pickled gherkins; then add one or two sharp apples chopped small, and the yolks and whites separately minced, of some hard-boiled eggs, with any thing else which may be at hand, and may serve to vary tastefully the decoration of the dish. Place these ingredients in small heaps of well-contrasting colours on the surface of the salad, and lay a border of curled celery leaves or parsley round the bowl.

For sauce, rub the yolk of one hard-boiled egg quite smooth with some salt; to this add oil and vinegar as for an ordinary salad, and dilute the whole with some thick sour cream.

Obs.—"Sour cream" is an ingredient not much approved by English taste, but it enters largely into German cookery, and into that of Sweden, and of other northern countries also. About half-a-pound of cold beef cut into small thin shavings or collops is often added to a herring-salad abroad: it may be either of simply roasted or boiled, or of salted and smoked meat."

The Dutch herring, though fallen from its former high estate, still maintains a commanding position in the markets of the Continent, thanks to the prestige deservedly acquired by its scrupulous preparation. Fishing at a distance from home, the Dutch are obliged to cure at sea. This operates unfavourably in the cost and the production of quantity. It has, however, some compensating advantages. The undulating motion of the vessel promotes a steady and gentle circulation of the pickle throughout the barrels, very favourable to the fish, giving a better appearance when opened for sale, and producing a milder and more uniformly

* *Schwedisches Koch-und-Haushaltungs Buch, von Christiana Warg, 1806.*

equal state of cure. Every precaution, however minute, which can maintain the reputation of three centuries, is carefully observed. Writing in the seventeenth century, Sir William Temple describes thirty ordinances issued for the curing and management of herrings. Most of them have been kept up to the present time. Each day's catch is most carefully sorted in qualities and immediately cured. The Dutch herring escapes all exposure to the sun, it passes by an instant transition from the sea to the pickle-tub. Some of the Scotch fish, according to the reports of their Commissioners, are injured by a neglect of this promptitude. The small size of their undecked boats precludes curing on board. In calms, and against contrary winds or tides, they are liable to be exposed for hours under a burning sun. When landed, they are too often allowed to lie in heaps, waiting for the curers, whilst the gloss of freshness like the dew of the morning is passing away, and it is the preservation of this gloss which makes the Dutch herring so highly prized.

Duhamel, *Traité General des Pêches*, states that there are two things which contribute to make any branch of trade flourish. The first is to gain the confidence of buyers by selling only a good commodity, and by punctuality in executing orders; the second to take care that the merchandise shall be sold at such a moderate price as to exclude all competition. Both these maxims were long most carefully observed by the Dutch. Latterly, adopting this same wise policy, the Scotch herrings have been brought into competition with those of Holland in the markets of Northern Europe, and their lower prices have procured for them a yearly increasing sale. The Dutch Government, taking alarm, instituted a Commission of Inquiry, and a relaxation has been made of the rigid ordinances which fettered the freedom of their fishery. Sufficient time has scarcely elapsed to test the results. Reports of the Dutch fisheries, modelled after those issued by the Scotch Commissioners, are now published every few years. From the last, that of 1861, we learn that advantage had been taken of the new regulations by some Dutch exporters, to ship to one of the best of their foreign markets, that of St. Petersburg, herrings of an inferior quality, and their consul very severely reprobates this short-sighted and injurious policy.

The distinguishing feature of Dutch fish cookery has been its simplicity. If possible the fish is transferred direct from the sea to the fish kettle, and in boiling it, fresh sea water is used. There being no necessity, as was the case at Paris until the opening of railways, to disguise its want of freshness by seasoning and piquant sauces, they are comparatively disused, although many of the best receipts of French cookery are naturalised in Holland. The French speak of our insular race as a nation "with twenty religions and only one sauce," and this one, of parsley and butter, we have bor-

rowed from the Dutch. In the kitchens of the wealthy Hollanders, specially amongst the Roman Catholics, fish is sometimes stewed *maigre*, with wine, spiceries, and butter—the dry, sub-acid wines are best adapted for this purpose. *Court Bouillons* for dressing fish make a useful broth—in frequent use in Lent. A common one is an imperial gallon of water, with salt, carrots, parsley, green onions, shalots, and small quantities of thyme, basil bay leaves, pepper corns, and cloves. Stew and strain, and when you use it add wine or vinegar. It will answer repeatedly if boiled up, and the fish successively boiled in it serve to enrich it. Some butter may be added. It forms a basis for *maigre soups*, and for fish sauces. In a Flemish preparation, similar to this, termed *frigaudage*, red wine is substituted for white.

The Dutch Herring Fishery is bound up with the most cherished associations of Holland's past historic grandeur.* No wonder then that a people so patriotic, so intensely national, should cling with characteristic tenacity to that annual celebration which for centuries has commemorated the opening of the fishery. We have already touched upon it, page 270. For a few days, whilst the earliest cargoes are being landed, the streets of the great towns appear *en fête*. The shops which have had the good fortune to secure a supply of the precious delicacy, are decorated externally with evergreens, floral crowns, and wreathed garlands of wheat, ribbons, and other ornaments. A single herring is deemed a handsome present by this thrifty race. Livery servants may be seen passing through the streets with plates, on which lie one or two covered with napkins of fine linen, and neat cards of presentation. At the dinner table it is too precious to be exposed to the attack of hungry stomachs; one or two only are brought on, as a delicate entremet between the courses. They are usually served up uncooked as cured on shipboard; and eaten with parsley or salad, form an agreeable whet to the appetite. At the *tables d'hôtes* a meal is frequently commenced by handing round small portions. The *steur-haring* caught on the Yarmouth coast, salted on ship-board, and smoked after it is landed, when it takes the name of *bokking*, is cooked much the same way as in Germany.

A selection of English receipts may be prefaced by a few general hints on the most ordinary modes of cooking herrings. No fish is apt to be handled more carelessly; and its reputation has suffered grievous wrong from the want of a nicety of manipulation. Any dish, however common, if but neatly served up, and brought on the table at the nick of time is twice as appetising.

* In the Museum at the Hague, amid some of the most precious historical relics of Holland—the pistol and bullet which slew William the Taciturn, the ball-dinted cuirass of Van Tromp, the gilded cannon of De Ruyter, the portrait of Van Speyk—may be seen the model in silver, very richly ornamented, of a Dutch Herring-Schuyt.

Fresh herrings when *boiled* should be first well scaled and wiped dry, and the water should be boiling before they are placed in it.* When *fried or broiled*, the fire should be clear, free from smoke, and not too fierce. The frying-pan should be clean, and not worn too thin, or the fish will adhere and burn. The material in which they are fried should be butter, oil, lard, or dripping.† It should not be stinted, and be quite dissolved before the fish is laid in it. The fish once in, the pan should be well looked to, and turned when requisite. In broiling, the gridiron should be well heated before the fish is laid on, and rubbed with lard or butter, &c.‡ To prevent the fish adhering to the bars, they should be well dredged with flour. In serving fish, it should, if possible, never be covered up, as it suffers from the condensation of the steam. The fish should be brought on the table 'piping hot.' Cold green parsley is abominable. The best cooks serve fried fish on a napkin, which always looks well if neatly done.

Herrings boiled.—Scale, and otherwise prepare the herrings in the usual way; dry them well, and rub them over with a little salt and vinegar; skewer their tails in their mouths, lay them on a fish plate, and put them into boiling water; in ten or twelve minutes take them out, drain them, lay them on the dish, the heads towards the middle; serve them with melted butter and parsley, and garnish with horseradish. Some cooks use equal quantities of vinegar and water in boiling.

Herrings boiled (Soyer).—Boil six herrings about twenty minutes in plenty of salt and water, but only just to simmer; then have ready the following sauce:—put half a gill of cream upon the fire in a stewpan; when it boils, add eight spoonfuls of melted butter, an ounce of fresh butter, a little pepper, salt, and the juice of half a lemon; dress the fish upon a dish without a napkin, sauce over, and serve.

To fry fresh Herrings.—Strip them of their scales, open the belly, and take out the inside and preserve the roe, which must be fried separately. Thoroughly cleanse the fish, score it in three or four places across the body on both sides to the backbone. Dry and flour well, and fry in butter or lard till done perfectly brown, and garnish with the roes. The fish should be well dried and folded in a warm cloth, well dredged with flour or oatmeal,

* Fish is usually boiled in salted water, a slight brine made with an ounce of salt to the quart of spring water, and a drachm of saltpetre. Some cooks instead rub the fish with salt, leaving it in soak for a few minutes previous to boiling.

† Mutton dripping is objectionable, communicating its flavour to the fish.

‡ "Broiling is the most delicate manual office which the common cook has to perform, and one which requires the greatest practical facility and the most unremitting vigilance. She may turn her back on the stewpan or the spit, but the gridiron can never be left with impunity."—*MRS DODS' COOKERY.*

or coated with egg and bread crumb. Fried onions are an excellent accompaniment, served up with the roes. Mustard and vinegar mixed up in melted butter is the best sauce.

Fresh Herrings broiled, sauce Dijon (Soyer).*—"The delicacy of these fish prevents their being dressed in any other way than boiled or broiled; they certainly can be bread-crumbed and fried, but scarcely any person would like them. I prefer them dressed in the following way:—wipe them well with a cloth, and cut three incisions slantwise upon each side, dip them in flour, and broil slowly over a moderate fire; when done, sprinkle a little salt over, dress them upon a napkin, garnish with parsley, and serve the following sauce in a boat:—put eight tablespoonfuls of melted butter in a stewpan, with two of French mustard, or one of English, an ounce of fresh butter, and a little pepper and salt; when upon the point of boiling, serve."

To broil Red Herrings.—Prepare as for frying, drying and well dredging with flour. Serve with fried onions. Put plenty of butter in, and serve up with mustard and plain melted butter.

To Marinade or Pickle fresh Herring or Mackerel.—Cleanse and cut off their heads, rub inside allspice, pepper, and salt; place in layers in a baking dish, putting bay leaves between; pour in three parts vinegar to one of water, to nearly fill the dish. Bake in a slow oven for about five hours, until the bones are found to have become softened as gristle. Keep in the liquor until cold, when carefully shift into a clean dish, or they can be pounded and potted.

Another Receipt for Pickling.—Let the fish be well cleaned and gutted, but not opened; take salt, pepper, mace, and nutmeg; pound and mix these spices well; then rub a pan with an onion, strew some of the spice over the bottom, and put in as many fish as will lay flat on the bottom; then put a layer of sliced onion, then fish, and so on alternately, till the pan be filled; strew the pounded spice between each layer; pour the best vinegar over, so as to cover the whole; tie a brown paper over the pan, and bake till the bones are soft. Sprats and mackerel are likewise pickled in this way. The heads and tails must be cut off.

Potted Herrings.—Cut off the heads, and lay the herrings close in an earthen pan; strew a little salt between each layer; put in cloves, mace, whole pepper, and a nutmeg, cut in pieces; fill up the pan with vinegar, water, and a little white wine;

"Herrings, when the roe is just forming," writes Soyer, "are most excellent and wholesome fish, when eaten fresh. The richness of the fish at this period is extraordinary, and renders it worthy of the table of the greatest epicure." In the earlier part of his 'Modern Housewife' he announces his intention to give later on a description of his new plan of curing and smoking the herring, with an account of its medicinal and other properties—a promise apparently never carried out.

cover the pan close, and bake the fish : when cold, pound it, and put it by in pots in the usual way.

Stewed Herrings.—Clean and put the herrings into a fish-kettle, with a sufficient quantity of stock to cover them ; add two or three cloves, a carrot, pepper, corns, an onion, a clove of garlic, a bay leaf, parsley, and half a bottle of port wine. Stew the fish in this till done, then take them out, keep them hot, strain, and reduce the liquor with a little sauce *tournée* ; then pass it through a tammy, into another stewpan, stir in a little butter and lemon juice, dish your herrings, and pour this sauce over them.

*Herring Pie.**—Scale, &c., cut off heads, fins, and tails ; lay a crust at bottom of the dish, which strew with pounded mace, pepper, and salt, put in a little butter, then lay in some herrings, season them, put in a layer of apples and onions sliced, then herrings, add some water and butter, cover the pie, and bake it well.

To bake Herrings.—Take ten or a dozen fresh herrings. Clean them, and wipe them with a damp cloth to take off the scales. Do not wash them. Cut off the heads, tails, and fins, and take out the centre bone. Lay them flat, and roll them up with the

* The city of Norwich is bound yearly to supply Her Majesty's table with 24 Herring Pies or Pasties, being the ancient fee-farm rent of the city, before its incorporation, when it was a great place of fishing before the foundation of Yarmouth. The Conqueror added several acres to the Manor of East Carleton, on condition that the Lords of it should carry these pasties to the king's house. This manor has passed into the possession of the city, who by their sheriffs execute the conditions of the joint tenures. They were to be "one hundred herrings by the great hundred, viz., of the first new herrings that came to the city, in 24 pies or pasties, well seasoned with the following spices, viz., half a pound of ginger, half a pound of pepper, a quarter of a pound of cinnamon, one ounce of cloves, an ounce of long pepper, half an ounce of grains of paradise, and half an ounce of galangals ; which said pies are to be brought to the king's house, wherever he is in England ; for which service the person carrying them shall receive there, six white loaves, six dishes of meat out of the king's kitchen, one flaggon of wine, one flaggon of beer, one truss of hay, one bushel of oats, one pricket of wax, and six tallow candles."

In 1620, 'diverse just exceptions' against the goodness of these pies, were made by the officers of the king's household, dating from Hampton Court, Oct. 4. The complaints specified were,—that the first new herrings were not taken,—that they were not well baked in good and strong paste, so as to endure carriage,—that in place of six score herrings to the hundred, which would give five to each pie, diverse had but four,—that the number of pyes were fewer than heretofore, and divers much broken,—and lastly, that the bringer was constrained to make several journeys before he could have them. The sheriffs of Norwich were charged to take such order 'that the same may be amended for the future.'

In 1352, the Yarmouth corporation gave to the College of Poor Knights, at Windsor, a last of red herrings to be delivered yearly for ever. Some centuries later, when the impost grew irksome, continual disputes arose on their quality or non-delivery. During the Commonwealth they discontinued them, until Col. Sparrow, the purchaser of the grant, had their bailiff arrested. In 1718, the delivery was commuted for a yearly payment of £8, which is received at the present day by the Dean and Chapter of Windsor.

back outwards, and pepper and salt inside. Place them neatly in a pie dish, and stick bits of butter on the top. Shake some pepper and salt over them, and pour in vinegar and cold water, according to taste. Bake in an oven.

Yarmouth Bloaters and Red Herrings.—Common mode.—Cut off heads and tails, open them at the back and warm them through before the fire, or upon the gridiron. Rub with a bit of cold butter, and season slightly with pepper or cayenne, or serve plain. If red herrings, before cooking pour on them boiling water, and let them soak for half-an-hour or longer. The hard roe makes a fine relish when pounded in a mortar with a little anchovy, and spread on toast.

Red Herrings broiled.—Steep first in boiling water or beer, then broil before a brisk fire upon a toasting fork until well done through, especially the roes. Then rub in as much butter as will absorb before the fire. If the fish have hard roes, open the belly, and insert some butter between the lobes of the roe, closing it up again that the heat may more readily melt the butter. Mustard is the proper accompaniment for red herrings.

Herring Toast Sandwich.—Choose a bloater for this purpose not too dry, which split in two, cutting it down the back; lay it upon a plate and pour a pint of boiling water over; let it soak five minutes, when place it upon a cloth to dry; then broil it very gradually upon a gridiron; when well done, which will be in about four or five minutes, have ready two thin slices of toast, made very crisp, butter them lightly, then take away all the bones from the herring, lay the fleshy parts equally upon one piece of toast, and cover with the other; serve very hot.

Herring Sausages.—Take them previously cooked, extract the bones, then mince up fine, season with cayenne, pepper, and salt, and mix up with a raw beaten egg, sufficient to bind up the whole, making the mixture in the form of sausages or of small balls. Fry them brown, and serve up with plain melted butter; bread crumbs or mashed potatoes may be mixed up with the fish, and they may also be coated with bread crumbs by rubbing a little raw egg about the outsides of the balls or sausages, and then strewing the bread crumbs over them.

Herring with toast and eggs.—Broil as usual. Break three eggs into a small stewpan, add salt, pepper, and two ounces of fresh butter; stew over a moderate fire, stirring carefully round until it has become smooth and moderately thick. Lay the broiled herring upon a large crisp piece of toast, and pour the eggs over it. Herring served upon toast, with a layer of mashed potato over it, is excellent.

Fresh Herrings (Farleigh Receipt, from the last edition of Miss Acton's Cookery.)—Scale and clean with great nicety, split open and carefully wash insides, dry well with a cloth, remove heads,

tails, and backbones, rub insides with pepper, salt, and pounded mace, stick small bits of butter on them, and skewer two of the fish together as flat as possible, with the skin of both outside; flour and broil or fry them a fine brown, serve with melted butter, mixed with a teaspoonful or more of mustard, some salt, and a little vinegar or lemon juice. To broil from 20 to 25 minutes; to fry about 20 minutes.

To boil herrings with potatoes, whether salt or fresh, is the almost invariable mode of cookery in use amongst the Manx fishermen. A Manxman is said to be known by his mode of eating a herring, as he always commences at the tail and eats it upwards; it is also considered unlucky to turn the fish on your plate,—you must cut it through and not turn it over. Herrings cured for winter use in the Isle of Man, are pickled, Scotch fashion, *i.e.* gutted and steeped in brine, but the great delicacy is the smoked herring, slightly salted and then hung up for 24 hours over the fumes of burning fir wood. We know of no more delicious adjunct to breakfast, luncheon, or supper, than a cold, smoked, potted Manx herring. They are prepared by stewing slowly in an oven, in vinegar, spiced porter, or port wine, and bay leaves, the heat continued until the bones, which are not taken out, become quite soft and edible.

The Scotch have always been much greater fish-eaters than their Southern neighbours, and free from any of their absurd caprice or prejudice against a fish diet. The herring is a national dish, and the genius of a people delighting in highly-seasoned and relishing modes of cookery has been exerted to do ample justice to its intrinsic merits. Who, that with frame braced up and hunger sharpened by the keen breezes of Highland glen or moor, has tasted the Loch Fyne herring drawn fresh from its native waters, and forgotten the glorious sensation. The fresh herring in Scotland is dressed in an infinite variety of ways. A capital mode is to cut off the heads, fins, and tails, and to scale, gut, and wash them, splitting them open, and seasoning the inside with pepper and salt, then placing two herrings flat together, backs outermost to rub them in toasted oatmeal, and fry them, serving up hot. Another mode is to dip them in oatmeal and fry them in plenty of dripping, with sliced onions. They are also broiled or 'speldered,' either split or whole, having first been wiped very dry, well dusted with flour, and cooked over a gentle fire. In

The Isle of Man herrings are generally very large, fat, and well-flavoured. Whilst the Island was a storehouse for smugglers, the inhabitants in a great measure neglected the herring fisheries along its coasts, and the supply was scarcely equal to the consumption. When by the removal of duties, smuggling was abolished, the coast population turned their attention to the fisheries, equipping several hundred boats of 10 to 15 tons, many half decked, and adapted for deep sea fishing. As a result the fishery has prospered amazingly, and aided by the advantageous situation of the island, is now become one of the most important in the kingdom.

cottage cookery they are commonly roasted on the girdle which toasts the family oat bread. They are frequently baked for keeping several days, and are then seasoned highly with salt and mixed spices, packed heads and tails in a deep dish, a little butter stuck over them, and then covered over with vinegar, after which they are tied up closely in several folds of paper and baked; to be either eaten cold or warmed up in their own liquor. *Collared herrings* are split, the bones removed, a seasoning laid between, and then they are rolled up and baked in a slow oven. A more epicurean Scotch recipe for frying herrings is to clean them well, wiping dry and rubbing in flour to absorb any remaining moisture, then dipping them first in beaten egg and next in fine bread crumbs; this may be repeated, or biscuit powder substituted for the crumbs. Fry them in a deep pan, in plenty of clarified dripping or lard (oil is still better), heated to such a degree that it may neither scorch the fish nor yet stew them. Lay them on a sieve to drain, and serve up on a napkin very hot. They may be garnished with fried oysters or sliced lemon.

A Scotch recipe for Red Herrings.†—Skin, open, and trim them, If old and dry, pour some hot small beer or water over them, and let them stop half-an-hour or longer. Broil over a clear fire at a considerable distance, or before the fire; rub them with good oil or fresh butter while broiling, and add a little more when serving up. Serve very hot with cold butter, or melted butter and mustard, and mashed potatoes or parsnips.

A Scotch Herring Pie.—Take six or eight fresh herrings, clean them, and season well. Lay them in a large flat dish, with either a puff paste border, or a neat edging of mashed potatoes. Spread over plenty of butter, or glaze and cover over with bread crumbs. Balls of fish forcemeat, or yolks of hard-boiled eggs may be used to enrich the pie, or for a plain dinner, potato balls. A hot fish sauce may be poured over the pie when baked.

A cheap family Scotch dish is that of several pickled herrings, washed and put in a stone pan, or close covered pot, filled up with peeled potatoes and a little water, and baked in the oven or boiled till done. The herrings should be placed uppermost. A red herring sandwich is one of the standing list of articles supplied at the new model dining rooms opened in Glasgow.

A Herring Salmagundi.—Wash and cut open two or three pickled herrings; take the meat from the bones, without breaking the skin, and keep on the heads, tails, fins, &c. Mince the fish

* Sir John Sinclair, a Scotch writer of note on dietetics, observes that there seems to be a general understanding among mankind, that fish ought to be eaten with butter and acids.

† For several of these Scotch recipes we have drawn upon that most admirable collection of the best results of Scottish, French, and English culinary skill,—the 'Cook's Manual of Mistress Margaret Dods, of the Oleikum Inn, St. Ronans.'

with the breast of a cold roast chicken, skinned; a couple of hard-boiled yolks of eggs, an onion, a boned anchovy, and a little grated ham or tongue. Season with salad-oil, vinegar, cayenne, and salt, and fill up the herring-skins, so that they may look plump and well shaped. Garnish with scraped horse-radish, and serve mustard with the dish.

Allan Ramsay gave it as his opinion that good herrings and good claret are very suitable companions, a criticism which those who have tried the experiment will not gainsay; and in Scotland, herrings have always been a favourite shoeing horn for good liquor, bear witness the opening verse of one of the most famous of her songs:—

“Fr let us a’ to the bridal,
For ther’ll be liltin’ there;
For Jock’s to be married to Maggie,
The lass wi’ the gowden hair.
And there’ll be langkale and pottage,
And bannocks o’ barley meal;
And there’ll be good saut herrin’,
To relish a cogue o’ gude yill.”
Fly let us a’, &c.

In the same strain runs another less known, but humourous old Scottish song:—

“I hae laid three herrin’ in saut—
Lass gin ye’ll tak me, tell me now;
I hae brew’n three pickles o’maut,
And I canna come ilka day to woo,
To woo, to woo, to lilt and to woo,
And I canna come ilka day to woo.”

Scotch herrings, from their fat, greasy nature, will not keep long, unless well salted; the bulk are subjected to this process, unlike the Yarmouth bloaters, which are lightly cured and quickly consumed. The Scotch peasantry and fishing population, either boil them with potatoes, or *roast* them—broiling our English term for the same operation, would be an unintelligible word to many of the poorer class of Scotland. Before roasting, it is usual to steep them several times in water, to remove their extreme saltness, and the tourist must have often had his attention caught by the strings, or *strops* of herrings, threaded through their eyes, and hung out to dry at the cottage doors,* after being steeped

* “The little fishing towns were generally disagreeable to pass, from the strong smell of the haddock and whittings that were hung to dry on lines along the sides of the houses, from one end of the village to the other: and such numbers of half-naked children, but fresh-coloured, strong, and healthy, I think are not to be met with in the inland towns. Some will have their number and strength to be the effect of shell-fish.”—JAMIESON’S ACCOUNT OF THE HIGHLANDS, 1822.

These are called *buffed* herrings, and are served at breakfast and supper.*

Of late years a taste for kippered herrings has sprung up in England, and large quantities are dispatched south. The following is an improved recipe:—

To kipper Fresh Loch Fyne Herrings.—The herring, freshly caught, is cut neatly up the *back* with a sharp knife, spread out flat in strong brine for a few hours, then hung up in a smoke house from a half to a whole hour, (according to taste,) which completes the operation. The smoke of oak wood is considered to impart a sweeter flavour than pine or any other wood.

To cook Loch Fyne Herrings.—Clean them, slightly salt them, with a small quantity of pepper just to keep the flies from them, hang them up, broil them next morning.

Professor Anderson, who wrote largely on the Scotch Fisheries† at the close of the last century, suggested as desirable the discovery of some new and more elegant way of curing, the art having remained stationary for centuries. "Of all fish drawn out of the sea," he writes, "the herring in its original perfection is perhaps the most delicious, and if cured by the help of less acrid antiseptics, which should not over-power its own native flavour, it might become a most agreeable delicacy, and as such be sought after through all the world. A few thousands of pounds offered as a premium by Parliament, to be given to the person who should discover the most elegant preparation of this fish at a moderate expense, might be attended with the most beneficial effects to the community,—the premium to be determined by a jury of London aldermen!" ‡

* A canny worthy at Annan passing a neighbour's door at the blink o'dawn noticed the strop of herrings hung up overnight had been forgotten and left out. He quietly removed them, and to baffle suspicion re-threaded them through their tails and strung them up at his own door. Presently a hue and cry arose, and he was taxed with the 'lifting'; "Na' Na'" was the ready response, "hoot awa! them's no the like o' your herrings, ava'. I kenn'd them the morn, hingin' by their heads, and din ye no just observe these a' hing by their tail eends?" "Aye! aye! ye feckless auld sneck-drawer," was the rejoinder, "ye could pit the spindle thro' their tails sleekit aneuch, but nas sa easy tak the holes fra' oot their een." To his dying day, 'auld turn th' herrin,' was the universal nickname which the knavish exploit achieved for him.

Martin, "On the Western Islands of Scotland, 1703," describes the natives as preserving and drying their herrings without salt, for the space of eight months, if taken after the 10th of September. They use no other art in it but take out their guts, and then tying a rush about their necks, hang them by pairs upon a rope made of heath, across a house, and they eat well, and free from putrefaction.

† Observations on Natural Industry, 4to., Edinburgh, 1777.

‡ In a similar vein, bewails the Shepherd in NOCTES AMBROSIANÆ, 'I never look at the sea without lamenting the backward state of its agriculture. Were every eatable land animal extinc' the human race could dine and soup out o' the ocean 'till a' eternity.'

Along the northern shores of the Pacific, and in the Japanese waters, herrings abound. Capt. Franklin and his intrepid party, who twice visited the Arctic regions of America, mention their subsisting mostly through the winter, on a fish called the herring salmon of the Bear Lake. Bevan Bay, Vancouver's Island, is famous for the abundance of its herring spawn. The native mode of collecting it is to lay pines on the beach at low water, when after the next flood has retired, they are found to be covered with herring spawn to the thickness of an inch. When dry, the spawn is rubbed off with the hand, into large boxes for future use. Previous to being eaten, it is washed in fresh water to remove the taste of the pine, and it is then eaten in the form of cakes, with flesh, fish, or fowl.* The Yarmouth bloater cure has lately been introduced with success into British Columbia.

Such information as has hitherto reached Europe on the Herring Fisheries of North America has been very meagre. Latterly the Canadian Government has been enquiring into them, and reports have been drawn up by Capt. Fortin and H. M. Perly. Herrings are found in prodigious numbers all along the coast from New York northwards to Hudson's Bay, disappearing in winter and swarming the shores in spring and summer. In Labrador, immense numbers are taken by a 'brush fishery,' the shoals being driven into a large pound constructed of stakes and brushwood. The abundance of the ova spawned on these coasts is incredible. Capt. Fortin reported that "he had seen the shore covered two or three feet deep for several miles, and oftentimes the sea white with milt for several acres round, where two hours before the water was of the usual colour. Each female herring has from six to eight millions of ova in her ovaries, and the males milt proportionate." In the autumn the Labrador coast is visited by shoals of very large fat herrings, having neither milt nor ova. Seines, as in pilchard fishing, are used to capture immense quantities, taking sometimes 3000 barrels at a single haul. Owing to their thick coating of fat, the fish have to be salted immediately. The produce of the spring fishing goes to Nova Scotia and the United States, and thence to the West Indies. The fat Labrador herrings are chiefly consumed by the Scotch and Irish in Canada. A large bulk is spoilt by careless curing. "Of all the fisheries in the Gulf of St. Laurence, none is capable of greater increase, or would furnish a more valuable export, than the herring fishery, if placed under judicious regulations and conducted with greater skill and care." It is difficult to compute the present catch, the returns being given in bulk with those of other fish. The importations of herrings into Massachusetts from

* Sir George Simpson's Journey round the World, 1841-2, 2 vols. 8vo.

the British provinces were as follows, during 1859 to 1861 inclusive :—

	1859.	1860.	1861.
Barrels	100,400	133,992	49,250
Boxes	13,135	28,861	12,800

The great falling off in 1861 is attributed to the Civil War in the United States, which has closed the Southern market with its very large slave consumption.

No herring caught on the eastern shores of the British Isles will compare in richness and delicacy of flavour with the Yarmouth 'long-shore herring. We have already briefly described it (page 304); but we feel sure our readers will thank us for a more extended notice of this rare and dainty fish. The 'long-shore herring is taken in October and November, close off the beach, with nets of fine cotton-twist, by day as well as by night. The row-boats drift with the tide in the usual manner, going down with the ebb and driving with the flood four or five hours at a time. Few fish in comparison are taken on the ebb, as the 'long-shore herrings do not swim on the ebb, but retreat with it into the deep water. They swim also very thin in the day-time. They are generally taken within a quarter of a mile of the beach; sometimes right upon it, one end of the train being held on the land. In rough weather none of them are caught, and winds from the north would seem to blow them off the coast. Their appearance is very precarious. Last year (1862) they were abundant, though but few had been taken for the eight preceding years, and many of the beachmen had parted with their nets for a trifle, or suffered them to rot. Sometimes they are on the coast for only three or four days, swimming south. They are taken at Southwold after they have left the Yarmouth Roads. A spell of fine weather is needed for a good season. The beachmen appear to think that they burrow in the sand, for they are often taken with their backs covered with mud. It is a curious fact that the young of the dog-fish prey voraciously upon them; sometimes more of these 'pups'—as the fishermen term them—will be taken in the nets, than herrings. Only a practised eye can distinguish a 'long-shore herring. They are a short, thick fish, with scales bright and glittering like silver. A native can readily tell them with his eyes shut, by their flavour, 'melting like butter in the mouth.' Don't talk to him at such an ecstatic moment of Scotch herrings—'as full of bones as ever they can stick.' A visitor inclined to make an investment in 'long-shore herrings is not unlikely to share the luck of the Caister beachman, of whom his rivals, they of Yarmouth, tell the tale, 'that he came all the way to Yarmouth to buy a pig, and then couldn't buy a whole one, for he must needs take back one without a tail.'

Towards the close of the herring faring, some of the Yarmouth fishing boats extend their drifts as far as the Dutch 'shoal water,'* where they frequently take in large numbers a tribe of herrings peculiar to that coast. They are a small plump fish. After hanging for two months in the curing houses their heads assume a darkness of tint, from which they are called by the fishermen the black herrings. Your Yarmouth beachman loves a simile as dearly as the Spaniard does his proverb; and, to borrow his phraseology, when fresh cured, they are 'as yellow as a guinea,' and very eatable, with rich hard roes; 'as red as a cherry,' and eating 'like ham.'

That 'the habit makes the monk, and the sauce the fish to be eaten,' was the creed of the Ancient Régimé of Cookery. 'Of all the nourishing productions which a benevolent Providence has bestowed on the appetite of man,' observes the *Almanach des Gourmands*, 'there are none on which the industry of an artist can more successfully exercise itself than upon fish, above all, sea fish, which naturally a little *fade*, borrow somewhat from art, and that art the most profound, the secret of piquing our palate, and of stimulating the appetite.'

A rank heresy has sprung up in our day, which discards this culinary dogma. 'We would combat an error,' writes *Gogué* in his *Secrets de la Cuisine*, 'committed by the cookery of the old régimé, and which is often fallen into now-a-days, in dressing sea fish with thyme, bay leaves, onions, cloves, &c. These aromatics naturally weaken the flavour of sea fish, and disguise that delicacy which is its chief merit. Thus a turbot has a firm flesh and excellent taste, but the brill which resembles it surpasses it perhaps in the delicacy of its flesh, it possesses a *nuance* which your true amateur knows how to distinguish, but this cannot be done if you place in the water the same ingredients which serve to dress, be it a turbot, or be it a brill. Reserve these aromatics to heighten the flavour of fresh water fish. As for sea fish, boiled, they should always be cooked in salt water, pure and simple.' For ordinary everyday cookery we hold the soundness of this reasoning to be unimpeachable. There can be no question of its superior wholesomeness. But there are occasions when the reply of Carême to the Prince Regent, will be apposite. 'Carême,' he remarked reproachfully 'yesterday's dinner was succulent. I found everything you set before me delicious, but you mean to kill

* In the spring before the mackarel faring, a number of the Yarmouth half-and-half and three-quarter boats, manned by crews of three or four hands go 'sole-coping' across the channel to the coast of Holland, into what they call 'the shoal water,' in search of the Dutch trawlers. Soles appear to be but little regarded by the Dutch in comparison with plaice, and the trawlers are generally ready for a 'deal.' When they have fish to sell, the signal is 'a spudge;' a ped at the end of an oar, put out from the vessel's quarter. To 'cope' or 'ruylebuyten' successfully with a Dutchman, you must first propitiate him with a biscuit.

me with indigestion.' '*Mon Prince*,' replied the great *artiste*, 'my duty is to provoke your appetite, not to regulate it.' We leave our readers to make their election, but append in our notes* a few recipes of the most approved sauces used in herring cookery.

'The wise will not spoil a fresh herring by too great refinement,' is the dictum of the *Quarterly Review*. Let him be placed on a gridiron upon the clearest of fires, and when sufficiently embrowned let him be instantly transferred to the hottest of plates. Eat him with sauce *a la tartare*, in the kitchen if you can.

* Sauce Hollandaise, (from *Le Cuisinier Imperial*).—Place in a stewpan, butter, a small spoonful of flour, two yolks of eggs, mix them thoroughly, add salt, pepper, lemon juice, and a quarter of a glass of water. When wanted, place on the fire, stirring it with care, so that it does not curdle; it ought to be somewhat thick in order to mash the fish or vegetables. See that it is agreeably salted.

Sauce Hollandaise, (from *Le Cuisinier des Cuisiniers*).—Wash some parsley, chop it fine, add butter, thicken with flour, add a little bouillon, lemon juice, salt, coarse pepper, a minced anchovy, and let it mix well.

Sauce Remoulade.—Take parsley, chalcots, capers, anchovy, young onions, and two sticks of celery, salt and pepper. Mince well the whole together, dilute it with oil, vinegar, and a little mustard; and when you have brought the whole to a perfect liaison, pour it into a sauce dish and serve cold. It is somewhat piquant but wholesome.

Dutch Sauce.—Yolk of two eggs, one quarter pint rich cream, two and a quarter table spoonfuls elder-flower vinegar, a little fresh butter, a blade of mace, flour enough to make the sauce the consistency of a custard which it should resemble.

Sauce Recipe from NOCTES AMBROSIANÆ.—TICKLER.—"No fish sauce equal to the following:—ketchup, mustard, cayenne pepper, butter amalgamated on your plate, *proprie manu*, each man according to his own proportions. Mushrooms for ever! Damn walnuts."

Sauce à la Maître d'Hôtel.—Melt a quarter-pound of butter, and thicken it with flour; add in the stewpan a little scalded and finely-minced parsley, salt, pepper, and afterwards a squeeze of lemon. Work it well with a wooden spoon to make it smooth. It should not be made till wanted.

Sauce Ravigote.—This is just a piquant salad-sauce. Clean, mince, and pound the herbs with a few capers and a boned anchovy or two. Pound the whole well with a raw egg, and add a little good vinegar to keep it from sticking. Rub through a sieve.

Ravigote à l'Ude.—Take of Chili vinegar, cavice, catsup, and Reading-sauce, each a teaspoonful; the size of an egg of butter, three spoonfuls of Bechamel, a little cream, salt, pepper, a little chopped parsley blanched, and cayenne.

Sauce à la Tartare.—Mix a minced eschalot and a few leaves of chervil and tarragon finely minced, with a teaspoonful of made-mustard, a glass of vinegar, and a sprinkling of oil. Stir this constantly, and, if necessary thin it with more vinegar.

Dutch Fish Sauce.—Equal quantities of water and vinegar boiled, seasoned, and thickened with beat yolk of egg, and sharpened with a squeeze of lemon; do not let it boil after the egg is added, but mill it.

Quin's Fish Sauce, a store-sauce.—Two glasses of claret and two of walnut-pickle, with four of mushroom-catsup; six large pounded anchovies with their pickle, and six eschalots pounded; a half-wineglassful of soy, black and cayenne pepper. Let this simmer slowly by the side of the fire till the bones of the anchovies dissolve. Strain it off, and, when cold, bottle for use.

Ample collections of the best modern sauces will be found in the *Cookeries of Miss Acton* and that yclept *Meg Dods*'.

Another simple recipe, and we have done. It has been communicated by a friend, and we can vouch for its excellence. If our readers will but make the experiment with a fresh Loch Fyne herring, or a genuine 'long shore Yarmouth herring, they will be ready to exclaim with Edgar, in Lear, 'Hopdance cries in Tom's belly for two white herring.'

Take *ad. lib.* fresh herrings by the tail, and with a coarse cloth rub the scales up towards the head. This will remove them without injuring the fish. Then roll them in a box of oatmeal, and sufficient meal will adhere to act like bread crumbs. Fry them in plenty of fresh lard, or good salad oil, and when cooked they should be laid before the fire to drain the fat clean away and leave the fish dry and crisp. Serve up with lemon juice and brown bread and butter. Fresh herrings ought never to be washed. When gutted, it should be done through the gills.

Many of the receipts we have quoted are applicable, with but slight variation, to the cookery of the mackerel and pilchard. The latter, or gypsy herring, eaten fresh at the scene of its capture, is delicious, and deserves to be better known inland. It takes the place of the herring on some parts of the Mediterranean shores, where it is highly relished, for does not Don Quixote, faint and bruised from his disastrous combat with the army of sheep, exclaim to his hungry squire, "For all that, I would rather have at this time a good luncheon of bread, or a cake and two pilchards' heads, than all the roots in Dioscorides' Herbal and Doctor Laguna's Supplement and Commentary."

Most of the *genus clupeidæ* are caught in British waters—the herring, pilchard, sprat, whitebait, and two species of shad. The herring is the big brother of the sardine, 'cet aimable petite bête,' 'ce charmant animal' of the *Almanach des Gourmands*, which now forms so important an article of commerce, and also of the anchovy, which latter fish the sardine rivals in the affections of epicures. Eaten fresh the anchovy is too rich for easy digestion, and the sardine has a much finer and more exquisite flavour. Pickled, the sardine is inferior.

Whilst the benefits to be derived from a fish diet were matters of dispute amongst the philosophers and physicians of antiquity, they were unanimous on the advantages resulting from it when taken as physic, and prescribed it in every possible shape, fresh, salt, dried, raw, cooked, powdered; and every part and tissue, flesh, bones, skin, tail, brain, gills, viscera, and even teeth,—the liver and roe forming the favourite preparations.

The herring was not known to the writers of antiquity, and consequently does not appear in their pharmacopœas. By the physicians of the middle ages, and by the profession downwards to the last century, it was adopted, and every healing virtue under heaven ascribed to its medicinal properties, by a number of

authors: It was prescribed as a cataplasm to the feet in fevers. Brudus Lusitanus, *de Febris*, describes it as a custom in England to feed people sick of the plague, with salt herrings. Schroder prescribes its pickle for cleansing ulcers. He adds that it is of service for sciaticas and dropsies, and the fat applied is a relief to kibes. "The round or cob of it," writes Nashe in his *Lenten Stuff*, dried and beaten to powder, is *ipse ille* against the stone."*

An elixir of herring bones was valuable in fevers, and an extract of herrings in obstructions. Candied and dipped in honey, its flesh was of use in asthmas; mashed into a balsam, it relieved arthritic cases; as an ointment it was applied to the itch, and all cutaneous eruptions; distilled into an essence it became a diuretic; it was drunk as herring wine for diabetes; buried under ground for a length of time it re-appeared as herring mummy, and effectually healed spitting of the blood, and the ill consequences of internal bruises; distilled after the manner of vipers, its volatile salt was a high sudorific, and of excellent service in epileptic cases, and its foetid oil was good for contracted sinews.

The gills burnt to powder were a specific for epilepsy; a herring's heart, taken every morning for fistula; the liver, powered and mixed with honey, a present cure for toothache; the gall for dysentery; the spawn for piles; the roe, distilled in water, a cosmetic for burnings and redness in the face; and the oil of the roes good for deafness, mixed with eels' gall, and dropped into the ear.

'The following receipt,' gravely writes Dr. Solas Dodd, in whose *Natural History of the Herring*, 1753, many of the nostrums we have been quoting, are brought together, requires some consideration:—"Take the oil pressed out of fresh herrings, a pint, a boar's gall, juices of henbane, hemlock, arsel, lettuce, and wild catmint, each six ounces, mix, boil well, and put into a glass vessel, stoppered. Take three sponfuls and put into a quart of warm ale, and let the person to undergo any operation, drink of this by an ounce at a time, till he falls asleep, which sleep will continue the space of three or four hours, and all that time he will be unsensible of anything done to him.'

* A proverb which occurs in Nashe's *Lenten Stuff*, has been overlooked until too late to appear with its fellows, at page 356. 'Gentlemen Jack Herring, that puts his breeches on his head, for want of wearing.' We must leave the unriddling of it to the reader. It appears to refer to some ancient mode of packing the fish in straw.

A New England simile has lately crossed the Atlantic—"I believe his liver's whiter than the milt of a herrin, and if you'd cut his yaller skin, he'd bleed whye stid o' blood."

Another stray gleaming is the old couplet—

"Herring and ling, herring and ling,
Of all fish in the sea, herring's the king."

Tulpius, the celebrated Dutch physician,* remarks in his *Medical Observations*, that a good herring eaten at the proper time supports digestion, removes phlegm, and excites appetite; and adds that the Dutch believe that fresh herrings banish illnesses as the sun dispels the mist, and that medical men have at no time of the year less to do than when herrings arrive. Tulpius adds that this, in his opinion, may be accounted for from the fact that herrings come in season at the healthiest period of the year.†

The following Macaronic Latin verse in praise of the many medical virtues of the herring, appeared in Teuzel's *Monthly Conversations*, 1696, written by Laurentius, a physician. A Netherlandish Lord is said to have found them written on an old board, and to have hung them in his dining-room.

Halec salsatum, crassum, blancum, graue latum,
 Illud dorsatum, scissum, peruentrificatum,
 Huic caput ablatum, sic pelibus excoriatum,
 Intus mundatum, crudum, vel igne, crematum,
 Illi coepe latum, per panem rustificatum,
 Hoc sic coenatum, dum transis nocte cubatum
 Id theriacatum, velut antidotum preciatum,
 Quod parit optatum potamen largifluatum.
 Dans de mane ratum guttur rebisondo paratum,
 Haustum, prostratum, reparat, mediatque palatum,
 Et caput et pectus desiccet phlegmatisatum,
 Dans vrinatum cito, mox deinde cacatum
 Dirigit inslatum, penetrando cibum veteratum.
 Hoc medicamentum fert LAVRENS versificatum.

Bock, in his *Versuch einer vollständigen Natur und Handlungsgeschichte der Heringe*, Königsberg, 1769, has brought together some old German herring remedies. Herrings split and applied to the head will remove a running, and also dropsy, and lower inflammation. The inside of the herring applied to the bites of snakes or mad dogs, after washing the wound with vinegar, will effect a cure. He quotes Professor Fuller as prescribing a herring plaster for fever when the exhausted patient is sinking into a state of stupor. Herrings steeped in tar and given to cattle he states to have been found useful in murrains. Mention is made of a landlord of Rostenburg, in Prussia, who in 1719 saved the lives of his cattle, in an epidemic, by administering to them every morning a tarred herring.

In Germany, at the present day, the curative properties of herrings applied to a variety of ailments are held in considerable esteem. Herrings eaten at night, if nothing be drank afterwards,

† Nicholas Van Tulp. His portrait appears in that masterpiece of Rembrandt's, at the Hague, 'the Anatomist's Lecture,' painted in 1632.

† In the *Dissertatio de Harengis*, Mart Schookii, Groningen, 1649, and in Neucrantz's *de Harengo Exercitatio Medica*, Lubeck, 1654, the healing properties of the herring are extolled. We are unable to quote from them, our search for both these two rare works, the earliest treatises devoted exclusively to the herring, having hitherto proved unsuccessful.

are believed to remove coughing. The milt of the herring roasted with butter, and pressed through a cloth, is applied as a salve to frost-bitten limbs. They are most frequently used as a counter irritation for hoarseness and sore throat, cut lengthwise, and the inner sides applied raw to the throat, changing them every twelve hours.*

One hasty glance at the herring's place in the *Medieval Science of Heraldry*. Yarmouth, as the great mart of herrings throughout the middle ages, had them blazoned on its town arms and seals at a very early date. The earliest bearing of the municipal arms, was on a field *azure* three herrings, *argent*. Later, the Royal Arms of England were placed in chief with the three herrings, two and one in the field. As a mark of special favour for the town's naval aid to Edward III, in his French wars, supplying more ships than any other port in England, the Ancient Arms were *dimidiated* with the Royal Coat.† On the St. Nicholas' Town Seal, in use from the thirteenth century, are three herrings *naiant*. Herrings appear on the flag of the town arms, in the Bailiff's Seal temp. Henry VII, on the Customs', Coroners', and Admiralty Seals, and on a number of tokens struck in the town. They appear also upon the Priory Seal of the Black Friars of Yarmouth, founded about 1270, probably indicating some fishery right. In *Domesday*, we find the herring fisheries among the most important of the manorial rights‡ in East Anglia; and on the South Coast, Sandwich, Lewes, and Brighton, paid yearly rentals of herrings to their ecclesiastical lords. Herrings were borne on the seal of the Bailiff of Dunwich, A.D. 1218, and were graven on the

* Subjoined are herring prescriptions from standard French and English Pharmacopœas, of comparatively modern date. More might easily be brought together.

HALÆC. Elle est aperitive, quelques uns appliquent un haren salé sur la plante du pied, pour faire passer la fièvre. Lemery's *Traité des Drogues simples*, 4to. Paris, 1699.

Cataplasma de Halecibus. Plantis pedum, alligetur quando materia febrilis caput malé petit. Spiritusque opprimendo stuporem, soporemve inducit. Fuller's *Pharmacopœa*, 1708.

† "Dimidiation was the dividing two shields of arms into half, and joining a half of each on the same shield, an obsolete and confusing method. In the instance of the arms now borne by Yarmouth as dimidiated—party per pale, gules and azure, three demi-lions passant guardant or, conjoined with as many demi-herrings argent—the result is the production of three hybrid heraldic monsters, with lions' bodies and fishes' tails."

‡ The Rev. Sir John Cullum, in his *History of Hawsted, Suffolk*, 1784, cites, among its manorial tenures and services, those held under Sir W. Middleton, temp. Ed. III. His tenants were bound to reap for him during autumn, a specified number of days, and were to have every day, a wheaten loaf, 15 of which are made of a bushel of wheat, and two herrings, ad nonam, at dinner. It would seem from this, that herrings were the victuals supplied on this coast to harvesters. In the will of Roger Drury, Hawsted, dated 1493, remarkable for its numerous curious bequests, appears one of xs which I will be spent in red herynge, yerly in Lenton, amonge the inhabitants of Whepsted, sume more and sume lesse, as povertie requireth.

tokens of its neighbour Southwold. The Arms of the Royal Burgh of Inverary, the seat of the Loch Fyne Fishery, are the waves of the Loch, in which is suspended a sean with five herrings entangled in it. The Royal Company of Fishing, started by Charles II, assumed for its arms *azure*, two herrings in saltier, surmounted by an imperial crown. The Schleswig city of Aabenraa, according to Mr. Horace Marryatt, bears for its shield, three red herrings on a field, *argent*.

Among the Canting Arms, or *armes parlantes*, speaking to beholders, 'non verbis sed rebus,' the herring was conspicuous. We find them on the arms of Heringh of the Rhine, Harenc of Foots Cray, Heringot of Westwall, Heringod of Elmstead, Heringham of Chaldon, from which last they passed by marriage into the quarterings of the first Earl of Bedford. They have found their way into the see of Canterbury, borne by Archbishop Herring, member of a Norfolk family at Walsoken. From the arms of Sir Thomas Kytson, sheriff of London, 1533, they descended through his daughter to the quarterings of the Earls Spencer, and through another branch into the ancient family of Gage, in Suffolk. They appear also on the shields of the families of Harries of Essex, Prickwell in Sussex, and other English commoners.* The young herring was termed a Cob, and appears as such on the arms of several families of the name—the Cobbs of Sandringham, near Lynn, the extinct Baronetcy of the Cobbs of Adderbury, the Cobbs of Sharnbrook, Beds. and the Cobbs of Snettisham, Norfolk.†

One of the most disastrous defeats suffered by the French at our hands was that known in history as the Battle of Herrings. A convoy of them proceeding to the English army encamped before Orleans, formed the prize for which the two armies contended. Monstrelet relates the particulars in his *Chroniques* On Ash Wednesday, 1429, a train of 500 waggons laden with Lenten provision, collected by the Regent, duke of Bedford, for

* The reader may consult for much curious heraldic lore, treated very attractively, MOULÉ'S HERALDRY OF FISH, 8vo. 1842, to which we are indebted for part of the foregoing.

† MAT. Thy lineage, Monsieur Cob, what lineage? what lineage?

COB. Why, sir, an ancient lineage, and a princely. Mine ance'try came from a king's belly, no worse man: and yet no man neither (by your worship's leave, I did lie in that), but Herring the king of fish, (from his belly I proceed), one o' the monarchs o' the world, I assure you. The first red-herring that was broiled in Adam and Eve's kitchen, do I fetch my pedigree from, by the harrot's book. His, Cob, was my great great-mighty-great grand-father,

MAT. Why mighty, why mighty? I pray thee.

COB. O, it was a mighty while ago, sir, and a mighty great Cob.

MAT. How know'st thou that?

COB. How know I? why, I smell his ghost, ever and anon.

MAT. Smell a ghost! O unsavoury jest! and the ghost of a herring, Cob."—
EVERY MAN IN HIS HUMOUR.

the beleaguering army, quitted Paris under the command of Sir John Falstolfe, a Yarmouth worthy.* Its departure was known, and troops to intercept it had been gathered together by many French captains, to wit, Charles, duke of Bourbon, the two Marshals of France, the Constable of Scotland and his son, the Bastard d'Orleans, and other great French Lords, having with them a force of from three to four thousand men. At the village of Rouvroy, near Orleans, Falstolfe was made aware of their approach and lost no time in forming the waggons into a square, enclosing within it his troops, and leaving but two openings at which the English archers were posted. As it was known that 600 only of his forces were Englishmen, an easy victory was anticipated by the French, a large contingent of whose army were Scotsmen. Whilst the French knights persisted in fighting on horseback, the constable of Scotland, with his men at arms dismounted, and advanced to attack the openings. Entrenched behind their rampart of carriages, the bowmen discharged their arrows against their foe with deadly effect. The Scottish leaders and a number of the French nobles were slain, with six score gentlemen, and 500 common men, the French army retreating to whence it came, whilst the English continued their march on the morrow, and joined in triumph their countrymen before Orleans. This action was fought on the night of the first Sunday in Lent, and the Chronicler remarks, 'King Charles on hearing the event was sick at heart.'

'Be of good cheer, my weary readers, for I have espied land,' breaks out Nashe, towards the close of his mad rhapsodical fantasias on the praises of the red herring. 'Fishermen, I hope will not find fault with me for fishing before the net, or making all fish that comes to the net, in this history,' he adds, and we would crave the same indulgence for this discursive, gossiping narrative. Our space imperatively requires us to take leave of this fascinating theme which has encroached so largely upon its originally allotted limits. We quit it with the greater reluctance, at leaving our tale but half told. More than half our materials,—illustrating the history of the herring fishery in Scotland, Ireland, Holland, and the Baltic,—and tracing the origin and growth of that romance of natural history, the herring migration theory, are per force thrown over for some future opportunity.

The time seems approaching, when our fisheries are again destined to attract the attention of the public in that eminent degree which their national importance and interest warrant, and when the herring shall assume that place in our estimation

* Falstolfe had a town-house at Yarmouth, and his Castle of Caister was three miles outside its walls. See also note to page 171 for further details of the Battle of Herrings.

which the Elizabethan writers prematurely sought to obtain for it.*

As a nursery of hardy seamen, and as affording a livelihood for rearing perhaps the healthiest stock of our population, the value of the fisheries cannot be over-estimated. The mainstays of England's prosperity at the present moment and in the future are twofold—an adequate supply of efficient labour for her manufacturing industry, combined with an unimpeded transport of its produce throughout the world, and unfettered exchange of it with that of other countries. Her vast foreign commerce, and her ships thronging every sea, have raised England to the pinnacle of wealth and influence. "Ships, colonies, and commerce," were the longing desire of Napoleon's ambition, as levers wherewith to dominate the world. We possess them each and all, in a degree distancing all rivalry. The sea must ever be the great highway of nations. Large as is the present maritime intercommunication, it is growing yearly with giant strides. Placed midway between the Old World and the New, England forms the great centre of trade and finance, and will continue so, supreme, so long as she can rear a brood of intrepid sailors to man her navies and mercantile marine. We are not like Holland in the seventeenth century, the mere brokers and carriers for other kingdoms; for ours is the coal and iron which have harnessed the genie of steam to do our behests, and yet it was by the strength derived from such secondary sources of power that Holland rose into the front rank of nations, and defied and broke the might of Spain.

The processes of our great manufactures unavoidably crowd together in large towns the bulk of the population, engaging a large proportion in unhealthy and sedentary employments. This has a tendency to produce physical degeneracy in their posterity, and to counteract it, a constant influx of new blood and more

That portion of the Census Tables of 1861, which gives the ages, occupations, &c., of the people, was not published until after our chapter on the statistics of the Yarmouth fisheries had been printed. Rather than omit them, we append here the figures of East Anglia, repeating the remark that the census was taken at the dead season of the fisheries, when the herring fishery had closed, and that for mackerel not commenced; the census embraces, therefore, only the professional staff, permanently engaged in these fisheries. The Essex fisheries do not come within the scope of this work, but their sprat and oyster fisheries are large, and the trawling establishments on the Thames, at Barking, are among the most important in the kingdom.

ESSEX.—Fishermen, 1,177; fishmongers, 176; seamen, 2,401; dock labourers, 1,146; pilots, 23; shipwrights, sailmakers, &c., 897; mat, rope, and canvass makers, &c., 186; coopers, 251; basket-makers, 151; female net-makers, 10

SUFFOLK.—Fishermen, 837; fishmongers, 245; seamen, 1,424; pilots, 117; shipwrights, &c., 459; mat, rope, and canvass makers, 405; coopers, 241; basket-makers, 140; female net-makers, 312.

NORFOLK.—Fishermen, 1,693; fishmongers, 553; seamen, 1,746; pilots, 64; shipwrights, &c., 542; mat and rope makers, 500; coopers, 360; basket makers, 365; fisherwomen, 12; net-makers, 109; female fishmongers, 135.

YARMOUTH.—Fishermen, 548; fishmongers, 189; seamen, 995; pilots, 55; shipwrights and sailmakers, 302; rope and cord makers, 150; basket-makers, 85; coopers, 87; labourers, 636; female net makers, 63.

vigorous stamina is required, attracted from the rural and coast population by the higher rate of wages. But whilst the census reveals a growing diminution of our rural population, which modern farming, with its labour-saving machinery bids fair to accelerate, every succeeding year the demand for seamen to work the growing fleets of this and other countries becomes greater. Whatever tends therefore to the fostering of our fishing people, whose children naturally pass, as they grow up, into the marine, deserves the encouragement of the country. Sailors cannot be raised by any artificial or forcing process. The sea is their cradle, their play-ground, their bread-winner, and oftimes their grave. It is not a calling into which the broken-down and incapables of other trades can be draughted. If it be true that fishermen are a prolific race, it is equally true that in no other calling is there so much waste from casualties, celibacy, neglect of health, exposure, changes of climate, shipwreck, and other causes as in that of the seaman; and if it be also a physiological fact that there is a preponderance of female births amongst them,*

* This theory receives but a slight confirmation from the East Coast census of 1861. In the Yarmouth, Norwich, and Lynn Registrar's districts, there was an almost uniform excess in the female population of 11 per cent. In Mutford district, which includes Lowestoft, the female excess was 7 per cent. But in almost all large towns a female surplus prevails, attracted from the villages by the factory, dressmaking, domestic service, and other employments for which no adequate opening exists in their rural homes, and these figures therefore prove nothing in the case in point. In Essex, there was a trifling excess of males over females. In Great Britain, the female excess was 3 per cent., and in the census previous, only half that amount. In Suffolk, an excess of females of 2 per cent., and in Norfolk of 4 per cent.

Let us turn to the sub-districts. In Kessingland, in which Pakefield is situate, there was a female excess of 7½ per cent., the same also at Lowestoft and at Gorleston. But in East Flegg, where lie the fishing villages north of Yarmouth, the proportion of the sexes was equal, and also at Cromer.

The proportion of ages is only given in the case of the largest towns, and Yarmouth is the only fishing town on this coast whose figures are issued.

Let us follow out the proportions of the sexes living in the borough of Yarmouth, at the several ages of

	Under 5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50
Males	2230	1923	1755	1349	1202	1061	1072	955	835	744
Females...	2130	1890	1829	1990	1892	1532	1437	1220	1205	961
	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90	95	100
Males	608	521	466	309	245	127	68	21	7	—
Females ...	808	624	613	431	365	213	108	48	12	4

These figures are full of interesting suggestions. We have room, however, for but a few. They show, that in childhood and up to ten years of age, there is an actual excess of males over females. It is later in life when the boys begin to turn out into the wide world, and onwards to middle age, that huge gaps are made in the respective proportions of the sexes; after middle age, when migration ceases the numbers become more equal, and in old age the superior vitality of the female life, tells at every stage in the downward pilgrimage to the grave. It is this higher longevity, and not excess of births, which gives a majority to the female population of Great Britain.

In another table the civil condition of the Yarmouth population is given,

	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.
Males	2742	5175	503
Females	4430	5692	1682

we may do well to remember the high and just importance which Napoleon set upon the physique and healthiness of the mothers of a people.

As a cheap, wholesome, and inexhaustible source of nutriment to the increasing millions of these little islands, as a field of profitable industry, extending enormously the area of their food production; admitting of vast expansion, which can be worked at every season, requiring no outlay in seed or tillage, and no artificial stimulants to keep up its harvests, it deserves the consideration of all who feel how largely the comfort and well-being of a people depend upon those humble but solid bases—abundant and low-priced food supplies. Railways and steam navigation have opened a new era for the fisheries. The demand for their produce has been crippled down to the present day by want of rapid transit, and whilst fish were swarming upon their shores, no where was there so much poverty, indolence, and listlessness amongst the fishing people as in districts like the west coasts of Ireland and the west Highlands, scenes remote from large and profitable markets.*

As an item in our foreign commerce of yearly growing importance, the produce of the herring fishery merits some attention. Our present export now reaches an annual value of three-quarters of a million, and is of a less fluctuating character than in former years. Along the northern shores of this island it forms the main support of thousands, whom the ungenial climate and niggard soil would otherwise doom to the alternative of starvation or expatriation. It was upon its herring fishery that Holland's commercial greatness was built, herring cargoes furnishing the staple commodity of

* In Ireland, in 1860, there were 53,714 men, 3,384 boys, and 14,182 vessels of all sizes engaged in the various fisheries; of the produce no record is kept, but in addition to what is taken for the home consumption, Mr. W. Andrews, President of the Natural History Society, Dublin, writes, 'that 1200 tons of salt fish, valued at £27,000, and 80,000 barrels of herrings, valued at £128,000, are annually imported into Ireland.'

From the report for 1861, of the Scotch and Manx Fisheries' Commissioners, it would seem that 12,961 boats, manned by 42,751 fishermen and boys, were employed in the herring and cod and ling fisheries, the estimated value of their boats, nets, and lines, being £783,000, the quantity of herrings cured being 668,828 barrels, estimated value, at £1 8s. per barrel, being nearly £1,000,000; the quantity of cod and ling cured and dried, being 82,344 cwt, value £1 per cwt.

No account exists of the English Fisheries, but including the herring, pilchard, oyster, trawling, sprat, deep sea, and other fisheries, carried on all round our extensive sea coast, the amount invested, and the numbers engaged in it must exceed those in the Scotch Fisheries.

In 1849, 3000 men were engaged in carrying salt to the English herring and cod fisheries, with a tonnage of 40,000 tons, and the crews and tonnage employed in exporting herrings and cod were in a slight excess of those figures.

Adding the families of the fishermen, we may fairly estimate that nearly a million of the population are directly supported by the produce of our fisheries, and the further number indirectly kept in employment by them must be proportionately great.

404 TOTALS OF BRITISH FISH IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

barter with other countries, her ships returning home freighted with profitable exchanges of their various productions, which again were distributed throughout Europe, supplying at every turn accumulating gains to her sagacious merchants. Her rival neighbours were not slow to follow her example, and borrow from her teachings, and it may be said without much exaggeration, that like as continents have raised themselves from out the waters upon coral reefs, so the vast and elaborate super-structure of modern international trading has been upreared to its present colossal dimensions upon a stratum of herring bones.*

The famous *éloge* which Lacepède has prefixed to his 'Natural History of the Herring,' we have reserved for the close of our

* Our English imports and exports of fish as extracted from the statistics of the Board of Trade Returns for 1862, being their latest publication, may be of service to the fishing interest of the East Coast.

TOTAL EXPORTS OF HERRINGS FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

	1857.	1858.	1859	1860.	1861.	1862.
Barrels - - -	309,114	336,560	266,615	341,508	364,118	510,411
Of a declared value of £533,883	462,939	363,198	474,805	513,468	690,349	

EXPORTS OF ALL OTHER FISH FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Declared value -	£118,468	113,798	95,814	101,927	134,179	191,856
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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FISH INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Fish, cwts. - -	264,826	204,982	246,302	433,615	325,580	291,096
Computed value -	£269,349	208,973	241,889	368,182	340,747	270,155

From NORWAY we received:—

Fish, cwts. - -	1325	1487	5220	110,099	34,782	
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Also of hewn birch and fir, for making herring barrels:—

Value - - -	£13,007	10,281	6443	5966	6746	
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From DENMARK, at a computed average of 18s. per cwt:—

Fish, cwts. - -	4318	13,434	22,270	12,790	7678	
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From Holland, at a computed value of £1 per cwt., (chiefly turbot):—

Fish, cwts.- -	43,204	29,336	51,741	69,365	53,502	
Eels, ditto - -	—	—	—	—	11,938	

From NOVA SCOTIA:—

Fish, cwts. - -	1339	239	249	3592	11,465	
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As a set-off we exported fishing tackle to the value of:—

	£7543	4875	9257	8942	8197	
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From NEWFOUNDLAND:—

Cod, cwts. - -	152,934	114,725	104,245	150,857	126,401	
Herrings, ditto -	22,122	12,813	11,609	24,449	28,412	
Salmon, ditto - -	2246	4601	3591	2222	3918	
Other kinds, ditto -	2451	1164	11,542	24,934	658	
Train oil & blubber, tons	11,819	9799	8513	6610	7218	

The value of fishing tackle yearly exported, ranging from £20,000 to £30,000.

From ICELAND and GREENLAND we received in 1861, 7595 cwt. of salt fish, valued £1 per cwt. From FRANCE we received 17,222 cwt. of cured fish, sardines, &c., valued at £84,124. From the UNITED STATES, 4548 cwt. of cured fish, value £4873; CHANNEL ISLANDS, 3570 cwt., at £1 per cwt. BRITISH NORTH AMERICA, 185,288 cwt., valued at £172,662; BELGIUM, 6408 cwt. of fresh fish, valued at £1721; TUSCANY, 406,933 lbs. of anchovies, value £11,870.

task. If we have failed in rousing our readers to a pitch of enthusiasm which shall rival that which his subject inspired in the brilliant French writer, it has not been from negligence or want of sympathy. Eighty years have however passed since it was written, and within the space of a lifetime the changes of centuries have been crowded. We have seen great earthly potentates, the wielders of 'the destiny of nations,' come and go. In the strife too for supremacy of the world's great staple products, there have been violent catastrophes. Cotton has been set up as king to reign over us, but the tyrant has been dethroned. This appears to be the age of iron. But whatever in the future is in store, to diminish its prestige on land—in the wider and more extended realms of ocean, the Herring appears destined to continue without dispute, 'REX PISCUM.'

"Honour to the people of Europe who have seen in the innumerable legions of herrings which each year leads to the margin of their shores, a precious gift of Nature!

Honour to that enlightened industry which has known by processes as easy as they are sure, to prolong the duration of that boon of the sea, and to extend it even to the centre of vast continents.

The herring is one of those productions of nature, the handling (*l'emploi*) of which decides the destiny of empires. The berry of the coffee, the leaf of tea, the spices of the Torrid Zone, the worm which spins the silk, have exercised less influence on the riches of nations than the herring of the Atlantic Ocean. Luxury or caprice demand the first, necessity reclaims the herring. Batavia has carried its fishery to the highest limit. This people when forced to create an asylum for its liberty, would have found but feeble resources upon a factitious territory; but the sea has opened to them its treasures. It has become for them a fertile plain, where myriads of herrings have presented to courageous activity a harvest abundant and assured. It has each year attracted numerous fleets to go and gather it. It has seen in the herring fishery the most important of maritime expeditions. It has surnamed it the Great Fishery. It has regarded it as a Mine of Gold. But in place of a symbol often sterile, it has had a fruitful reality; in place of seeing its riches bedewed with the sweat, the tears, the blood of the slave, it has received them from the hardihood of free men; in lieu of ceaselessly plunging hapless generations in the gulfs of earth, it has formed robust men, intrepid mariners, experienced navigators, happy citizens.

Let us cast our eyes upon these grand enterprises, over these great manœuvres, these vast operations; for what better merits the name of great than that which gives to a people its nurture, its commerce, its forcefulness, its skill, its independence, and its virtue."

Supplementary Note on the East Coast Fisheries.

A motion made in the House of Commons by Mr. Fenwick, M.P. for Sunderland, on June 3, 1863, 'for a Royal Commission to enquire into our Deep Sea Fisheries,' was acceded to by Government, and Mr. James Caird, M.P., Mr. G. Shaw Lefevre, M.P., and Professor Huxley, were appointed to undertake the enquiry. The special object sought by the petitioners was to obtain an examination and report on the operations of the trawl fishery, which has increased so enormously within the last few years, and against which an outcry has been raised by numbers of the poorer fishermen along the coast, as being hostile to their interests, destroying the spawn, and thereby threatening to extinguish the sources of supply. After visiting the fishing stations along the English North-East Coast, the Commissioners proceeded to Brixham, the head quarters of the Devonshire trawlers, and, a few weeks later, adjourned to Yarmouth, which has of late years become a centre of the East Coast trawl fishery. Their enquiry at Yarmouth was held Nov. 16, 1863, at the Sailor's Home, and a number of the principal merchants, adventurers, fishermen, and buyers attended and gave evidence. At the moment when this sheet was passing through the press we received the report of this enquiry, published *in extenso* in the local papers, and decided to incorporate the pith of it in this already over-lengthened section of our Guide Book. It will serve to test the accuracy of what we have written on the Yarmouth Fisheries, and also to supplement the errors and deficiencies inevitable in a task of this nature. We cannot help envying the good fortune of these Grand Inquisitors, who armed with their *open sesame*—

"I charge you, speak?—in the Queen's name!

could extract in the space of a few hours a considerable body of facts in excess of those which our own enquiries, carried on under favouring circumstances, and extended over many months, had succeeded in accumulating.

The first witness examined was Mr. Samuel Hewitt, in whose family is vested probably the largest trawling establishment in the kingdom. We shall condense, as briefly as possible, the evidence of this and subsequent witnesses.

"Yarmouth has not been noted for trawling until within the last twenty years. It was never a line fishing place. There were not more than four or five trawlers here seventeen or eighteen years ago, now there may be 150. The increase in the last ten years has been very fast, the vessels are larger, manned by more men, the nets are also larger, the tonnage is from 30 to 50 tons, carrying six or seven hands, men and boys, paid by wages, the captain having 5 per cent. of the earnings. The fish supply is increasing very fast, never was so much fish known as at the present day. From two to three tons is sometimes got in the trawl, from a three hours' trawl—the catch is chiefly haddocks and plaice as a bulk, with turbot and soles. We have

fished this year on the Dogger, but do not generally go so far north. We fished on the south edge of the Dogger, and about Botany Gut, 80 miles from Yarmouth." (The Dogger-bank, the El Dorado of fishermen, is an extensive sandbank in the North Sea, extending from twelve leagues east of Flamborough Head, in a N.E. direction, to within twenty leagues of Jutland. In some parts it is twenty leagues broad. Nearest the English coast it has nine fathoms of water, but in some places has a depth of twenty-seven.) "We trawl at a depth off from eighteen to twenty-three feet. I own between fifty and sixty trawl smacks and carrying cutters, and last year I paid away £20,000 in wages and victuals. Many captains rise to become owners of vessels. We take our fish to Billingsgate, packed in ice, on fast sailing cutters, built for the purpose. Three or four days elapse between the catch and delivery, sometimes a week. An average good day's fishing will be a ton. If calm, they get but little—if a smart breeze, a fair catch—if a gale, none at all. In a ton of fish there will run about 3 cwt. of soles, 10 or 11 cwt. of haddocks, the rest, plaice and whittings, and a few turbot; very few cod, a few brills. The fish change their place according to the season, in very cold weather they get into deep water for warmth, in fine, in shallow water. On the Dutch coast I have seen the turbot a few inches from the surface, in the height of summer. A good fishing ground has a smooth bottom, and our men know by practise when they come to rocky ground. Fish come up mostly dead, the longer the trawl is down the worse they will be; in fine weather we make short hauls of two or three hours, and the fish are alive. We generally go with the tide for four or five hours. Our length of beam is from thirty-four to thirty-seven feet, in the north they use larger. The haddocks are half as large again as they used to be, they run eighteen inches. I have five or six *line vessels*, catching haddock, cod, and whiting, about the Well Bank; they make short voyages and bring the fish very fine; one vessel, a day or two ago, in five days had over 100 score, the vessels run from 50 to 60 tons, and never go into harbour, carry eight hands, all line fishing. I have been giving them up, finding trawling pay better. A trawling smack, with fittings, costs £800 or £900, they used to be dearer. I have about eighteen carriers, twelve or fourteen of them first rate. The only fish trawl caught, which fetch a comparatively inferior price, are large cod. If not alive, they will not do to crimp, and fetch but half the price of line-caught cod. No part of the fishery grounds has fallen off or become exhausted. If you stop trawling you will raise the price of mutton and beef, 2d. per lb. We send from 100 to 200 tons a day into London from trawlers from Yarmouth, Hull, and Grimsby. Turbots fetch the highest price, next brill, soles, plaice, and haddock, which last, from the great bulk caught, are low-priced.* A large trade is done in smoking them. We want no interference

* A letter from a Billingsgate salesman, in *The Times* of June 7, 1863 on Trawl Fishing, affords some insight into the prices realised by the catch. "The cutters each bring from 400 to 600 packages, and we have daily at Billingsgate, one or two and sometimes more of these cutters. Their freight consists of about one-half prime and the other half plaice, haddocks, &c. The haddocks are generally purchased by costermongers, who clean, cure, and smoke-dry them. These are sold as Finnan haddocks, and many a poor person is engaged through them that might otherwise be doing worse things. They realize on an average 12s. or 14s. a basket, but sometimes as low as 8s., at others as high as 20s., weighing 150lb. or 160lb. The plaice are mostly bought by persons who are termed friers, who clean them, cut in slices, and fry in oil. These are readily purchased by the poor, and a hearty, wholesome meal is well relished for a penny. Many cannot afford to purchase meat or keep fires in their confined dwellings in summer time; so thanks to Providence for so bountiful a supply of this cheap and good food. Some portion of them are hawked on barrows, and others are sold at shops in poor neighbourhoods. They are often sold as low as 6s. or 7s. a hamper, weighing 150lb. or 160lb. The prime fish are enjoyed by all classes, and when more than two cutters are at market, are often sold at very low prices.

with the fisheries. Our trawlers from Yarmouth remain out six weeks, those from Barking, eight. The cutters make about a voyage a week; forty fathoms, at the Silver Pits, is the greatest depth we fish in. We find it does not pay to employ steamers to carry our fish."

Christopher Splashett, formerly master and part owner of a Gorleston smack, next examined.

"Agreed with Mr. Hewitt that haddocks were getting larger. Has seen three tons of fish hauled at once. The trawl mesh is larger than formerly, and the small fish escape. A trawl net costs £8 to £10, and on very level and nice fishing ground will last two months. We ascertain such ground by the lead. The best fishing depth is from 22 to 24 fathom. Fish gather about Smith's Knoll, Brown's Ridge Bank, and such places, because the ground is rich in food there. Fishermen's wages here are—mates 18s., common hands, 16s. weekly, the same as has been for 30 years past. All trawlers here fish in the deep sea."

Nicholas Apter, fisherman and part owner, of Yarmouth, examined.

"Trawlers are now larger vessels. We fish with a net of 16 feet gearing and 16 feet beam, a smaller net than I have been used to formerly. When we fish against Yarmouth there is more tide, and a large net would get shut up. To the north we have a large net, and there is there no tide. At this time we chiefly fish on the Dogger Bank, 150 miles from Yarmouth. Our nearest in-shore fishing is at Smith's Knowl, 22 miles off. I have caught 326 packages of fish of 1½ cwt. each, in three weeks: the more you catch the more there are. We get more fish down northward, and we get more sail up there than off Yarmouth, and more 'ofal', haddock, and plaice. We carry a masthead light, as the Hull Club requires. I believe the more trawling goes on the more fish there are.* Trawling disturbs the ground and brings the insects up, supplying food for the fish. I compare trawling almost to farming. You plough the field and cast out all that is bad, and you think every year you get better crops. So it is with us. We disturb the ground and the soil comes up underneath, and the fish are enabled to get at it.† I was master in a trawler worked on the share principle, taking as wages a share and a quarter and a half-quarter out of the eight shares. We have to come in-shore to meet the cutters."

George Pallett, master of a trawling smack, formerly from London.

"We must have long vessels to work the trawl, and to keep it clear of the stern in getting up. I was employed formerly in the *Line Fishing*. I used to shoot out a length of line of 12 miles, 36 hooks on a line, each line 40 fathoms and 2 lines to a piece. Nine pieces were put together when fishing on the Dogger, forming a line of 720 fathom. The line would be one or two miles in length. 80 or 90 of these pieces, a double line each, with 36 hooks would be shot, making about 6500 hooks. We bait them as we haul them. It takes four or five washes of whelks to bait them. We should have a larger haul than a trawler. I have seen 100 score to a shoot. I have got 20 score of cod to a shoot. We begin to put them out two hours before daylight, so as to get them out by daylight; and it is one day's work to get the bait in and the

* In illustration of the abundance of fish, this witness stated that at Smith's Knoll he had seen thirty trawlers at once working within hail of each other, backwards and forwards with the tide, for several weeks; and but little perceptible difference could be noticed between the catch of the foremost and sternmost vessels.

† James Clements, a Hull trawler, deposed before the Commission at Sunderland that the trawl stirred up the worms and slugs, and other things that the fish fed upon. The fish followed the trawl, "like a parcel of crows, to catch these things."

line drawn. The cost of the line, of attending it, of bait, and everything else, would be greater than in a trawler. In a gale of wind you would lose all the lines. Trawl nets are frequently lost in rough weather."

William Holt, master of a Yarmouth trawler.

"The size of my vessel is 44 tons; trawl 36 feet beam. I have worked longer in the north,* but where we work the current runs very strong, and our beams, if longer, would not stand; and when they are full our nets would close. This is why our nets are not larger. In calm weather long nets have a tendency to fall down and not admit the fish to go far enough in the nets. Moderate weather suits us best—a two-reefed sail. We go over the ground about three and a half miles per hour with the tide and all, the tide will go two to two and a half, and the vessel will drive a knot or a knot and a half. We force them along with canvass as well as the tide. We like to go a little faster when fishing for soles, and faster still for haddocks and plaice. Then we put up more sail. We always fish with the tide as far as we can, following the run of it as far as the wind will allow. The higher the tide the more benefit we reckon to our fishing. We cannot fish against the tide, the bottom of the net lifts up. In fishing, we generally cleave to the shore in the middle of the summer on either side. Our fish in quality are better than those on the Dutch coast, not perhaps so plentiful. The more the ground is disturbed and cultivated the better produce comes from it. The food is better, and they can have more exercise. (*Laughter*). We catch lots of dog fish in the trawl. They are very tiresome; they prick our fingers in the dark, and we cannot afford to pay boys to hold lanterns. (*Laughter*). It is the piped dog, with two scales on the back. We get the spotted dog in the summer. I wish I had money enough to build two or three more trawlers. I have sons qualified, and I wish I had a vessel for each of them. Only I find I have not enough money. When I first went trawling off Norfolk there were only one or two smacks. Now I think after Christmas, if we are spared, we shall muster about 140 sail, all belonging to Yarmouth and manned by Yarmouth men. Our smacks are manned by eight men and two boys. We have cleared the ground wonderful of stones since we began trawling. I could show you stones lying about Yarmouth Quay you would think it impossible a net could bring up. Now we trawl safely in places where some years ago it was almost sure to be a sacrifice if you put the net down."†

Mr. Shuckford, the principal Yarmouth adventurer in the herring fishery, examined.

"I have an equal number of vessels engaged in the herring and mackerel and in the trawl fishery. I think there have been more herrings on the coast during the present and last year than during the 20 preceding. During the last 10 years a Spring herring fishery, from the latter part of February to the end of April, has been started; but we do not follow it. A large number of boats go, but it is always unsuccessful. Millions of fish are caught, not one that is not a spent fish—fish with no roes in them. They sell for very little money in London and the manufacturing districts. They will not bear salting. They sell at 3d. or 4d. per 100. The farmers, who buy them for manure, will not give a third of the price they would if taken in the proper season—there is neither oil nor moisture in them. They are all either consumed in the North or sold as manure. One great injury which I think is done by the spring fishery is, that thousands buy them, eat them, and get so disgusted with the

* The large trawl beams worked on the North coast are termed "searakers" by the Yarmouth men.

† An amusing illustration of the old East Anglian prejudice against the foreigner, or *sherman*, cropped out in this witness's evidence. Reckoning up the trawlers sailing out of Yarmouth, he was asked, "Do you include Mr. Hewett's?"—"No! he is a stranger just dropped into the town because some of his vessels could not get home. He is a long way from home, he is, and we are handy upon the spot."

quality that they do not care to touch any more for a long time. We have a Midsummer Herring Fishery, beginning early in June and lasting four or five weeks. It has been quite a failure the last few years. I believe from the effects of the Spring fishing. The Midsummer fishing is our most expensive one (from the limited extent of the catches, which entail the same expenses as full fishings,) the fish are very fat, but not curable for exportation, or keeping beyond a certain number of days. It is impossible to find aught of a roe in the Spring caught herrings of March and April; but early in May you see them begin to be full with a sort of gut in them, and a fortnight afterwards you see apparently the same herrings, which though they have got no 'roe' in them, certainly have got in them that which puts the quality in the fish. I should say between 300 and 400 boats out of this port are engaged in the fishery, with crews ranging from 9 to 11 hands. About 50, chiefly Go-leston boats, go to the Spring, and 20 to 40 the Summer fishings. The Scotch are all green and gutted fish; ours all salted and smoked; and each have their distinct markets. Bloaters are red herrings lightly smoked, put up one day and taken down the next, after being smoked 12 to 18 hours. The fish cured for exportation would not suit the home markets. They are sent to the Italian markets and the Greek Islands. Every exporter, almost without exception, puts his name on the barrels he sends out. The best fish for bloaters are taken from the early part of October to late in November. I should think three times as many men are engaged here in the herring fishery as in the trawling. Wages have ruled pretty much the same for the last 25 years. Under the old system they are paid by wages, and whether the fish is worth £10 the last, or only £3 the men get the same. The payment of wages to a boat's crew averages £3 3s. per last caught. In consequence of the bad seasons of late years they get now 15 per cent. less than formerly. 900 or 1000 spring herrings go to a barrel, and about 600 autumn fish. My nets are braided about 31 or 31½ meshes to the yard, by the time they go through the processes of barking and getting fit for sea the first year they will be 32½, and in three or four years will wear up to 34 or 34½. No herring nets should have more than 36 meshes to the yard, or an inch from net to net on the line. I believe the fish found on the coast would about average the tonnage of the herring boats, which runs about 55 or 56 tons. I should say between 300 and 400 belong to the port, not all though of that size; perhaps half are a class which run ten tons below that. My nets are 200 meshes deep, with head lines of 15 or 16 inches. The cost of a boat fitted up for both the herring and mackerel fisheries will be £1500 or £1600. It will cost more than a trawler on account of the nets. During a season three distinct sets of herring nets are required, each 1 or 1½ inch long. The mackerel net is 24 or 24½ to the yard, and a fleet reaches 2½ miles; a double quantity of warps are therefore wanted. As a rule the mackerel we take are all full fish. In the last 20 years the number of herring boats at this port has nearly doubled. I should think 20,000 tons of fish are sent from here yearly to the London markets. I should say from 50,000 to 60,000 barrels go from here to the foreign markets, each containing 600 to 700 fish, and weighing 1½ cwt. I have never found the summer herring full of roe or of milt; it is fat-gutted. Herrings are now selling at such prices on account of the large catch that they are a loss to us. I suppose my boats have caught 500 lasts this season. If all had been put up to public sale they would not have averaged £6 per last. Large quantities would not have made more than from £3 10s. to £4 10s. per last. My boats mostly get 60 or 70 lasts per season, each, and should realise £10 per last to keep me clear of a loss, let alone a profit. I think if the weather is warm at the beginning of the season, the fish are not so good in quality. After London, our largest quantities of fish are sent to Manchester, Birmingham, Liverpool and Leeds. The average price in all these markets is 50 per cent. less than it was five years ago, owing to the large catches of this and last year."

Mr. Robert Martin, a herring fisherman for 30 years, examined.

In answer to the question, "Where do the herrings spawn?" this witness replied, "It's always towards the shoal (shallows) where we find the most fish."

Mr. John Mainprice, boat owner and fish buyer, examined.

"We have something like 400 vessels fishing out of Yarmouth. You may consider 50 lasts per vessel as the average catch. Upwards of 4000 fishermen are employed at sea. Since 1857 the mackerel fishery has greatly fallen off, returning a loss to those engaged in it. I attribute it, to some extent, as a practical man, to the Spring herring fishery. Great numbers of young mackerel are destroyed then. The mackerel are supposed to be very tender fish, and as soon as they strike the net they die, and in that way a large number are destroyed. Though there is a large catch of spring herrings they are worthless. In the great manufacturing towns they may be purchased as a novelty, at the time of the year when very few fresh herrings are to be had, but they are not liked, and we find generally that the dealers have orders not to send any more. Our best foreign market is the Mediterranean. We send the best fish to the lower ports, and the inferior to the Adriatic. The duty to Naples now is merely nominal, and the export has increased. We send to Malta, and to most of the Greek Islands, not to the Southern French ports. Last year we exported between 50,000 and 60,000 barrels, and I think 20,000 were shipped also from London. The price of fish has greatly fallen abroad. The Scotch herrings are packed in a barrel a little larger than the dried herrings, but the pickle takes up some room. I think they both contain about the same quantity, and realise about the same price. Curers put their own trade marks on the barrels, and some brands command much higher prices than others, as much as 50 per cent."

With the examination of this witness the enquiry at Yarmouth terminated.

On Saturday, November 21st, Lowestoft was visited by the Royal Commissioners. The evidence given at the Suffolk Hotel appears to have been confined mainly to witnesses for and against the Spring Herring Fishery.

Mr. B. M. Bradbeer, fish salesman, examined.

"Had been so engaged since 1849. He thought there was no diminution of herrings at that season of the year. No doubt, there was a great falling off in the mackerel fishery, first showing itself four or five years back. He thought the young mackerel were destroyed by the Spring herring voyage. He submitted samples of nets used, of 40 meshes to the yard, and these were not the smallest. They were now being used also in the Autumn voyage. Mackerel were a very delicate fish, and he believed they were meshed and killed on the spot by the small nets used in the Spring herring voyage. Six or seven years ago he would sell five or six lasts of mackerel in a day; now, he should think that quantity almost a season's catch. The Spring herring voyage first commenced about twelve years since. Ten years ago, from 20 to 30 boats prosecuted it, now not less than from 150 to 200 were engaged in it. Then, 50 lasts were landed in a day; now, from 150 to 180 lasts. Truckloads were sent away for manure. He had known boats raise only from £40 to £50 the voyage, and he had also known them realise from £500 to £600 per boat, but not lately. The quality of the Spring herrings was most inferior; not eatable; not healthy. They were sent all over the country, and in the end often thrown away. He thought the Spring voyage paid no one but the railway and harbour company. It began in the middle of March, and ended generally about the first week in May. It has increased sevenfold within the last ten years. He felt strongly that the Spring voyage injured the Midsummer and mackerel voyages very materially. When the Spring voyage first commenced the herrings were very small; as the weather grew warmer the fish improved both in size and quality, till at last they became a very fine fish indeed. There was not more than a fortnight's interval between the end of the Spring and commencement of the Midsummer fishing; and he considered the Midsummer herring to be the same class of fish in an advanced state. The last two or three years the Midsummer voyage had not averaged more than £20 or £30

per boat, instead of, as in former years, £200 to £250. He thought legislative restrictions should be imposed. Boats should not be allowed to go to sea so early. The mesh of the nets should be larger, not more than 36 to the yard. The Autumnal fishery voyage had increased. About ten years since there were 70 or 80 boats engaged in it, now there were 198. The fish were sent to Manchester, Liverpool, Scotland and other places. Not a fiftieth part of the fish caught went to London. A great deal was sent to Birmingham."

Mr. John Robertson, collector of customs at Lowestoft, examined.

"Had been stationed there ten years and a half. Had noticed a large increase in the number of boats engaged in the fisheries. At the present moment the number of fishing luggers employed in the herring and mackerel voyages was 176, and eight smacks employed in the trawling only. Two years ago there were 140 boats. They varied from eight to 34 tons register, manned by from five to eleven hands. He agreed with the last witness, that as the Spring voyage increased the Midsummer one decreased. The fishermen were subject to no regulations on nets, &c., and he did not think any would be advantageous. Fishermen complained of the damage done to their nets by trawlers and the French boats. The trawlers had a contrivance placed in front to enable them to cut through a fleet of nets without any interruption. The French boats came in here during the Spring fishery to buy the herrings for bait for cod fishing."

Mr. James Taylor, fisherman and owner of two boats, examined.

"Had been connected with the fishery 16 or 17 years. He liked the Spring voyage very well indeed. Always made more profit by it than during any other voyage. It formerly commenced March 20th, now much earlier, about March 6th, and continued till the Midsummer fishing; the two fisheries, in fact, ran into one. The Spring herrings were not of first-class quality, but improved as the season progressed, prices improving also. They generally caught a larger quantity at first, when they used a smaller kind of net. Did not believe the Spring voyage injured the Midsummer or mackerel fisheries. Thought it now commenced too early. April would be soon enough. The fish began to improve when there were very few to be had [By Mr. CAIRD: Don't you think if you were to let them alone till May, the fish would be of a much improved quality?] Witness: It is wise to get them when they are there; you cannot get them when they are not there. (Laughter.) They had caught many young mackerel with the herring; but they had never had a large catch here since 1854. They generally found the Spring fish in deep water when they first commenced, about 27 or 28 miles distant. The value of his boats, fitted with nets, would be £800 each. They paid the men by shares. Supposing the boats made £260, if there was £60 expenses, £100 of the remainder would be divided amongst the men, and the rest goes to the owner of the craft. Supposing the whole sum raised is £160 after paying expenses, then the men take half and the owners take half. 2,000 or 3,000 people were now dependent on the Spring fishery."

Mr. George Keeble, engaged in the trawl and line fisheries, examined.

"Wind and weather had much to do with the quantity of trawl and cod fish brought into Lowestoft. In rough weather the trawlers came into Lowestoft instead of going on to London. Codmen had complained of trawlers injuring their fishing. He thought there was more trawl fish now than ever on the same ground. Knew of no ground that had been fished out. Had observed the quality of the trawl fish was not so good as formerly. More trawl fish were brought into Lowestoft now than there were five or six years since."

W. Catchpole, fisherman and owner of a boat, examined.

"Found the Spring fishing very beneficial and profitable, and should not like to be deprived of it. The fish are certainly of an inferior quality, very dry

at first. Last year they realised very good prices, from supplying the Frenchmen with bait. The French fishermen entirely depended on their Spring fishery for bait. They sold their fish to French boats in the harbour. Their boat realised about £230.

Mr. Archer, solicitor, examined.

"Was much surprised at Mr. Bradbeer's evidence. He had assumed that to stop the Spring voyage would improve the Midsummer one. Now, referring to 1855, many of the Midsummer herrings realised less than the Spring catch. Another Spring fishery the herrings realised 11s. per 100, whilst in the Autumn they scarcely ever exceed 3s. per 100. Many had been sold for less, and others for manure. 18 years since they were all large boats engaged in the fishery; then small boats were introduced, and they commenced the Spring fishery and had continued it to the present time. At the time to which he referred, not more than 20 or 30 boats were employed in the fishery, and the fish merchants in a state of bankruptcy. The fishing had gone on improving and increasing from the establishment of the second class luggers. No doubt, the Spring fishing injured the Midsummer catch, but he thought there was a distinction between the Autumn and Summer herring. Considered any Government interference would be highly injudicious."

Mr. Kendall, station-master at Lowestoft, examined.

"The quantity of fish dispatched from their station during 1862 and 1863 had been about the same. Both the Spring and Autumn voyages had been heavier than for several years previous. Some days they had dispatched as many as 100 trucks, each averaging three to four tons. During the past week he had sent from 80 to 90 trucks away daily. About one-fourth was sent to London, and three-fourths to the Midland and Northern districts."

The Commissioners then terminated their enquiries at Lowestoft, proceeding, on Friday, November 27, to King's Lynn, where witnesses on the town's fishery* were heard at the Town Hall. The Town Clerk explained to the Commissioners that the fishery had been much infringed on, and that penalties declared for the use of unlawful nets had been disregarded. The old charters which empowered the Corporation to regulate the fishery, had virtually become a dead letter, the principal offenders being the farmers who bought the fish for manure.

Mr. J. F. Cresswell, examined.

"The herring fishery had greatly fallen off. There had been hardly any for the last three or four seasons, and it had ceased to be worth following. Of sunelts, of sprats, and of shrimps there was the usual supply. As to mussels, they were at times almost entirely raked up for manure, and a valuable trade to the North for bait was much injured by it. More than half the whole catch was taken for manure, the price for that purpose being, he should think, 14s. or 15s. a hundred bushels. Could not say that the Lynn fishery trade to the North was important or lucrative, or that those who sold mussels for bait made more of them than those who sold them for manure. They were very good manure. Could not say how many tons were used yearly for that purpose. Had seen at Hunstanton nine or ten carts go down at spring tides every tide. Should think 180 tons would be taken from one bed in a fortnight. All mussels taken in Mr. L'Estrange's bed have been used as manure as long as I can recollect. I see no sign of their diminution; but they rarely arrive at that state when they can be used for the valuable trade of bait. The shrimp fishery is the staple fishery of Lynn; vast quantities are sent away by train."

* The census of occupation, in 1861, gives to Lynn 400 seamen, 31 pilots, 166 fishermen, 26 fishmongers, 62 shipbuilders, sailmakers, &c., 54 rope and cord makers, &c., under and over 20 years of age.

Mr. Christopher Bouch, fisherman, examined.

"He fished for every kind of fish in the Lynn Deep, and for several miles below it. The number of boats in the fishery had increased, and the boats were larger. When he was a boy, 12 or 15 small trim boats went out from Lynn, and as many small shrimp boats. Could not say how many there were now, but they were increasing yearly. He accounted for the decrease of certain fish in the Deep, from the improved drainage bringing more fresh water down, and so driving away the fish. Eels had decreased; their breeding grounds had been destroyed by the alteration of the river. When he first remembered, there were not more than four boats went out for herring, now there were 20."

Thomas Carter, fisherman, examined.

"Had observed a great diminution of soles last season. Did not think they could avoid catching soles in shrimp nets. The herrings had fallen off. Fishermen, when they argued with one another about it, could only say, 'If they come, they come, and if they go, they go.' Stow nets had been used ever since he could remember, specially from Boston. On the whole, there was as good fishing as there used to be. He fished mussels for eating, not for manure; and got a constant demand and better price for them as food. Our gentlemen have let strangers come and take our fish. When there is a good bed, then strangers come and take the mussels away from us. Regulations ought to be enforced to keep the strangers off them, so as to let the Lynn fishermen have them."

After hearing several more fishermen to the same effect, and a discussion with the Town Clerk respecting the powers of the Corporation under their Charters, the meeting separated.

Trade of the Port of Yarmouth.

For many centuries the three great ports of the English Eastern Coast have been Newcastle, Hull, and Yarmouth, each accommodating the wants of a large inland district. The situation of the latter at the confluence of the principal rivers of East Anglia gave it a high commercial importance from a very early period, the converging streams serving as the chief arteries of inland communication over widely extended districts in Norfolk and Suffolk.* The former, the fourth in area of the English counties, is for its extent and population the most productive agricultural county in England, yielding immense supplies of corn and cattle, the annual export of grain amounting to 600,000 quarters in a single year. Norfolk, with its light sandy soil, has long had the reputation of growing the finest English barlies, and for many years Yarmouth was the largest corn and malt exporting port in

* Norfolk, 70 miles E. to W., 42 N. to S. 180 miles in circumference, contains 1,364,301 acres two-thirds arable, one third pasture; is divided into 33 hundreds, 743 parishes, 19 unions, 14 county courts, and returns 12 members to Parliament. Population in 1861, 435,442, inhabiting 96,951 houses. Assessed to Property Tax in 1851, at £2,463,893, and to Poor Law Relief £1,865,216.

Suffolk, 57 miles E. to W., 52 N. to S. Contains 947,681 acres, is divided into 21 hundreds, 438 parishes, 17 unions, 13 county courts, and returns 6 members to Parliament. Population in 1861, 336,271, inhabiting 73,067 houses. Assessed to Property Tax in 1851, at £1,834,252, and to Poor Law Relief £1,366,648.

England, a greater quantity being sent coastwise than from any other port. Malting on a very extensive scale is carried on at Yarmouth for several of the principal London brewing firms, as also for the large local houses. The Yarmouth ales, like the Scotch, are sweet, and are held in great repute in London, Messrs. Lacon despatching upwards of 50,000 barrels yearly to London by railway, and 20,000 to other localities, in addition to their home trade.

It has been computed from the statistics of the local markets that before the opening of railways, 230,000 quarters of wheat, barley, and malt, and 150,000 sacks of flour were forwarded by the rivers Wensam, Bure, Yare, and Waveney, from Norwich, North Walsham, Bungay, Beccles, &c., to Yarmouth, to be shipped thence to London, Liverpool, Scotland, Newcastle, &c. The average export of the three years ending 1785 was 270,000 quarters; from 1810 to 1819 it averaged 310,000 quarters; from 1839 to 1843 it exceeded 400,000 quarters yearly; and in 1840 the export of grain from Yarmouth was 480,363 quarters.

As the port of Norwich, the capital of East Anglia, whose wholesale traders supplied the towns and villages of the neighbouring counties, Yarmouth enjoyed an extensive and lucrative carrying business. Norwich was the chief seat of the woollen manufactories for several centuries, and of these at the close of the last century, when in their most prosperous condition, goods to the yearly value of £1,000,000 were exported via Yarmouth. Thirty years ago the quantity of goods dispatched from Norwich and East Norfolk by water to the port for exportation was 22,000 tons annually. The imports were on an equally extensive scale. About 200 wherries, of from 15 to 35 tons burden, were constantly employed bringing coals and heavy goods from ship side at Yarmouth to Norwich, at 1s. 6d. per ton. Prior to 1826, two-fifths of the coals and goods imported into Yarmouth, were sent up the Yare to Norwich, and more than half the imports and exports to and from Yarmouth belonged to that city. One Norwich merchant received through the port from 12,000 to 14,000 barrels of porter yearly. A large number of wherries were also maintained on the several rivers, bringing down agricultural produce for shipment, and returning freighted with coal, oil cake, manures, marl, reeds, and other requirements of the farming population.*

The imports of Yarmouth were very large, until checked by the operation of railways. From the north of England immense quantities of coal, salt, and other heavy goods, were landed for distribution to the interior; one item may be instanced in illustration,—Forty tons of cheese were imported by Yarmouth traders,

* Readers desirous of fuller statistics may consult Bacon's *Royal Agricultural Prize Essay on the Agriculture of Norfolk*, 8vo., 1844, and Bayne's *Industry and Trade of Norwich and Norfolk*, reprinted from the *Norfolk Chronicle*, 1852.

weekly during the season from Hull. Many thousand tons of goods were sent up the rivers yearly from the London markets. The heaviest item was that of coals, which still find their way inland, viâ Yarmouth. In 1824, the import of coals was about 100,000 chaldrons. The yearly average of coals and of imported goods 'paying the corporation duty of one penny per ton, for the ten years, 1840-49, was—Coals, 177,170 tons,—Goods, 76,000 tons. For the last year, ending Aug. 31, 1862, dues were levied on 119,981 chaldrons of coals, and 76,807 tons of goods. The yearly average of the Haven and Pier dues, for the twelve years, 1836-47, slightly exceeded £10,000. In 1860, they were £9,006.

The Customs' Duties received at Yarmouth in 1815, were £59,575; in 1816, £48,148; in 1817, £50,408; in 1818, £63,251. In 1839, the amount was £59,541; in 1840, £46,731; in 1847, £59,784. Of late years, since Lowestoft was severed from the port, there has been a falling off, to which the great lowering of customs' duties has contributed. The table subjoined, is extracted from the last published *Returns of the Board of Trade*.

CUSTOMS DUTY RECEIVED AT YARMOUTH, LOWESTOFT, AND LYNN.

	1857	1858	1859	1860	1861
	£	£	£	£	£
YARMOUTH ..	36,744	34,278	35,357	23,098	22,514
<i>Declared real value</i>					
<i>of Exports ..</i>	<i>80,223</i>	<i>42,725</i>	<i>34,820</i>	<i>40,774</i>	<i>182,034</i>
Lowestoft ..	8,844	5,547	10,080	3,638	3,421
<i>Value Exports ..</i>	<i>17,380</i>	<i>5,100</i>	<i>12,912</i>	<i>15,004</i>	<i>25,272</i>
Lynn ..	23,979	19,082	20,389	15,058	16,174
<i>Value Exports ..</i>		<i>3,040</i>	<i>4,926</i>	<i>440</i>	<i>29,824</i>

Number and tonnage of British and Foreign Vessels entered at Yarmouth in 1861—161 British, of 16,378 tons; 85 Foreign, of 11,957 tons.

Ditto, cleared at Yarmouth to Foreign countries—89 British, of 7,683 tons; 49 foreign, of 5,784 tons.

Number and tonnage of Registered Vessels under and above 50 tons belonging to Yarmouth, in 1861, under 50 tons, 404, of 12,063 tons; over 50, 225, of 24,663 tons, and 10 steamers, 722 tons.

Number and tonnage of British and Foreign ships entered coastwise at Yarmouth, 1861—1,543 ships, of 124,335 tons, and 203 steamers of 39,396 tons.

Ditto, cleared from Yarmouth, 486 ships, of 28,754 tons, 200 steamers, of 38,939 tons.

During the last two years there has been a progressive increase of foreign tonnage entered at Yarmouth. The year ending March 31, 1863, was an increase of 10,000 tons upon that of 1862, chiefly under the following heads;—France, linseed and oil cakes; Baltic and Canada, hemp, tar, timber, &c.; Egypt, cotton; United States and Denmark, corn.

The Yarmouth Beachmen.

Sympathising with the old classic deprecation, '*Procul este profani!*' we had almost decided to leave unmentioned this section of the coast population. Some of our modern writers appear so fondly bent on investing them with a halo of romance, that the task of dispelling it appears ungracious. After reading that they "are of Danish origin, and exhibiting all the qualities of the sea kings, of gigantic stature, noble bearing, and of great courage; at a moment's notice ready to man their enormous yawls and put to sea in the worst weather to assist the vessels which so frequently come to grief on the Scroby sands; and as gaining enormous sums, and spending their lives in a perpetual vicissitude of violent exertions and luxurious idleness;" there is a bathos in the abruptness of the descent to a literal and prosaic account of the characteristics of this hardy, useful, and adventurous class.

The avocation of the beachmen of this coast extends along the waters' edge, from Pakefield northwards nearly to Cromer, a beach line, over thirty miles in length, and corresponding in its extent, and running parallel with the dangerous channels of navigation, known as the Yarmouth Roads. Along this highway, hundreds of shipping pass daily to and fro, the majority of them colliers and coasters, trading between the Tyne and Thames, numbers of which are old, crazy, and indifferently found. From the moment a vessel enters this shifting and difficult navigation—which Defoe describes in his day as 'the terror of sailors'—at the Pakefield gat, until it emerges beyond Winterton Ness, a skilled and vigilant seamanship is requisite, and it is the number of accidents, more or less serious, which are continually occurring, particularly to foreign vessels, which has created and continues to support the daily occupation of the beachmen.

Beyond its hazardous conditions, its alternations of quick and fierce activity, succeeded by days, perhaps weeks of listless monotony and weary expectancy; other circumstances combine to excite the looker-on to a keen interest in the beachman's life. It seems such a strangely special and exceptional calling, rousing into sudden flame, it may be the highest or it may be the lowest faculties of his inner nature; testing in a moment hidden flaws with the severest strain; admitting the display of the noblest heroism or of the most heartless, merciless greed. Much of this fades away on closer examination. Custom and daily habit exert their deadening power here as elsewhere. The risks and profits have been reduced to the prosaic law of averages, individual impulse is extinguished by the over-ruling bond of co-partnership, merging the individual conscience in the aggregate one; the men now think and act in companies, and the morale of these companies will be

found neither higher nor lower than that of most other corporations, and with but little more inherent romance than exists in those unheroic bodies.

The beachmen are recruited principally from the ranks of the herring fishermen. In the intervals between the fishing seasons, whilst the green men, or country hands, return to the fields, the masters, mates, and staff of the fishing boats fall back on a variety of avocations at the beach side to fill up these periods of leisure. The nature of the beachman's occupation, which requires a capital to be sunk in boats, and the instantaneous muster of a crew in every emergency, necessitates the formation of companies, and their frequent struggles for salvage creates a strong *esprit de corps*. On the Yarmouth beach there are seven companies arranged in the following order from north to south—the Holkham, Standard, Young, Diamond, Roberts', Star, and Denney's Companies, mustering in the winter time, when their ranks are full, about 180 men. Their boats are held in shares, and include the long and graceful yawls specially used for salvage; ferry boats for carrying fish, anchors, &c.; and gigs to communicate with vessels in the offing in calm weather. Each company has several of these, together with a look-out, furnished with telescopes, and also a warehouse for the stores. The cost of a large yawl fully equipped ranges from £260 upwards; of a small one, £110; of a ferry boat, £40; a gig, £21. Besides these they own the pleasure boats used in the bathing season, and which cost from £60 to £100.

By the laws of salvage the boat which first communicates with a vessel in distress is entitled to the prize, and a beachman's life is passed in a succession of severe contests with his rivals, contests often terminating in disappointment, and hardly calculated to develop the best side of human nature. Some companies being larger than others there would be but little chance for the smaller in launching and hurrying away, and it is therefore usual for adjacent companies to combine their forces, one running to the aid of its neighbour, north or south, as wind or tide may seem most favourable to their success.

From May to July the beachmen ferry mackerel to land at a charge of 1s. per 100 in the Roads, or 2s. in the Offing; and herrings from the end of September to December, at 8s. per last, or 4s. per last at the Quay.* Three companies are engaged to ferry the trawl fish taken by about 100 smacks, and brought into the Roads by cutters daily. The beachmen also fish in the Roads, fetch masters of ships ashore or put them on board, put off pilots, sweep for anchors lost in the roads, or take off anchors, spars, &c., to vessels needing them,—seldom, however, the latter, for a ship's extremity is the beachman's opportunity.

* We believe this rate which has prevailed for a number of years past has just been reduced, in consequence of the present great depression of the fishing interest.

Then, when from the lofty look-outs a ship is seen in distress, with her anchors gone, or is beating on the sands, a rush is made to the water's edge; the strategy of the campaign is planned in an instant by the commanders, their allies are mustered, and soon the crews of several yawls are straining every nerve, racing along to near the expected prize. If a vessel is on the sands or much disabled, they will all join in the rescue and reward, driving as hard a bargain as can be extracted from the anxious captain, working on the fears of the crew, and running up their terms if the captain's wife be on board.* The beachmen often strain themselves in launching their heavy boats, get drenched in the surf, and after rowing for many miles in a heavy sea, a crew of some twenty or thirty men may have to haul up their boat again, not receiving a penny for their toil. Whatever the gains are, they have to be shared among a large number. Hardships like these are apt to harden men's hearts, and if, after earning nothing for weeks, and after watching in rough weather night after night, a vessel is seen getting into trouble in the narrow swashways which cross the sands, or in the Pightle, a dangerous *cul de sac* between the

* A few years ago it was said that the children of beachmen made one prayer, and only one,—“Pray God, send daddy a good ship ashore before morning;” but we believe the spirit which would prompt this ejaculation is fast dying out.

The scene has much changed, and many are alive who have witnessed the gradual transition. since just eighty years ago, Crabbe, whose lot in early life was soured by the hardships and discontents of ungenial toil, and who describes himself as

‘Cast by fortune on a frowning coast,

Which neither groves nor happy valleys boast,’

sketched with unflattering brush in stern and gloomy lineaments, the sterile shores, and rude inhabitants of the East Anglian coast. The beachmen he portrays as smugglers, and wreckers:—

“Here joyless roam a wild amphibious race,

With sullen woe display’d in every face;

Who, far from civil arts and social fly,

And scowl at strangers with suspicious eye.

• • • • Beneath yon cliff they stand,

To show the freighted pinnance where to land;

To load the ready steed with guilty haste,

To fly in terror o’er the pathless waste,

Or, when detected in their straggling course,

To foil their foes by cunning or by force;

Or, yielding part (which equal knaves demand),

To gain a lawless passport through the land.

Here, wand’ring long, amid these frowning fields,

I sought the simple life that Nature yields;

Rapine, and Wrong, and Fear usurp’d her place,

And a bold, artful, surly, savage race;

Who, only skill’d to take the finny tribe,

The yearly dinner, or septennial bribe,

Wait on the shore, and, as the waves run high,

On the toss’d vessel bend their eager eye;

Which to their coast directs its vent’rous way,

Theirs, or the ocean’s miserable prey.

Scrooby and the Cross Sands, it would be expecting superhuman virtue in the beachmen that they should warn them off, unless there be danger to the lives of the crew. Frequently when a vessel's side has been reached, if the danger be not imminent the captain will bid them stand off on peril of a handspike or capstan bar playing about their heads, if they attempt to board, and a parley has to ensue, the beachmen pleading with a rude eloquence for some employment to remunerate them for the risks they have undergone to save the lives of the crew. The amount of salvage is often left to arbitration, and salvage cases are a most prolific source of litigation in the local courts of law. Of late years the competition of the steam tugs has greatly interfered with the gains of the beachmen. They sally out of the haven and intercept the beachmen's prizes, and also render ship's masters more independent of their aid. The beachmen complain bitterly that when a valuable cargo is the prize, the steamers get before them; but in cases of wreck, and where human lives only are at stake, they are suffered to risk theirs in the rescue unopposed.

The intermittent nature of a beachman's employment, and the precarious nature of his income, are as prejudicial to his habits, as they would be to those of any other class. It is but mocking him to talk of his 'enormous gains.' His best season is during the fishery, when he is supposed to earn from 30s. to 40s. per week in ferrying; at other seasons his incomings do not average half that amount. His civility to visitors during the bathing season is proverbial, and is put in constant requisition to administer to their amusement and enjoyment, the genuine beachman displaying to the fair sex a rude courtesy, and to children a tenderness which win their regard. Some of them rise into easy circumstances. Samuel Brock, one of the most famous of their order, is now the owner of several fishing boats. Each company has a sitting room attached to their warehouse, and this is called a 'court,' (or 'shed,' at Lowestoft). Here they sit and braid trawl nets, 'long-shore nets, make and mend ballast bags, cut out linen pegs, play draughts, read, &c., and keep watch by turns at night. Nearly four-fifths of the Yarmouth beachmen are believed, by those best acquainted with their habits, to belong to provident societies.

There are several popular errors current respecting the beachmen besides those we have named,—“that they are a class apart, intermarrying among themselves, have only a few names among them, and are chiefly distinguished by nicknames.” Their occupation knits them into small companies, predisposed by rival interests to look askance at those members of their own class on the beach with whom they do not usually act in concert, and this feeling is carried so far, that, as a rule, they never enter each others 'courts,' even for religious or benevolent purposes. There

is nothing, but the nature of their calling confining them to a strip of the beach, to keep them apart from the community. As the fishery comes round they join in it, looking down perhaps on the 'country men,' as they call the capstan hands. Those who live in the fishing villages which line the coast marry naturally amongst each other. That there is any tendency to form a caste is disproved by the fact that there are an abundance of names in their ranks. Amongst the 180 beachmen of Yarmouth there are upwards of sixty different names. Nicknames were formerly the rule, but are now the exception, and are almost confined to the epithets the rival companies have conferred on each other of 'young uns,' 'strong uns,' 'wriggle bums,' 'silver spoons,' &c.

The Yarmouth Life Boat is entrusted to the care of the beachmen, each company taking charge of her one year, and is usually worked by the two companies who are accustomed to act together.

Admission into the ranks of the Yarmouth beachmen is not very easy. At Lowestoft, where no difficulty is made, they are more numerous, there being upwards of 200, consisting chiefly of the men who work the half-and-half boats in the fishery. At Caistor there are 40 beachmen; at California, two miles further north, 30. Newport, in Hemsby parish, has 14; Winterton has two companies, mustering 60 hands. At this last village they consist of a few large families, the Danish patronymic of George being common, and nicknames, in consequence, rife. Almost all the beachmen in these villages are either masters or mates of herring boats.

Much has been done of late years, and with encouraging results, to bring the beachmen under educational and religious influences. Devoted ministers have laboured in the new and picturesque church erected specially for their use. Schools, classes, mission rooms, scripture readers, and other agencies of modern evangelisation are actively co-operating in this good work, and it is one which merits the sympathy and assistance of every visitor to Yarmouth.*

* For most of the particulars embodied in the foregoing account, we are indebted to Mr. Vallins, who for many years past has laboured as Scripture Reader among the beachmen of this coast, and no man living is probably better acquainted with their homes and habits.

Dialect and Provincialisms of East Anglia.

"What are called our rustic dialects are, strictly speaking, nothing more than those colloquial words and phrases peculiar to particular localities, which have not been adopted by our authors, but which are not the less genuine members of that Teutonic stock of which the written language forms only a part. That language, which is now called the established language of literature, and which has rejected some of these provincialisms and adopted others, might, under different political circumstances have contained these elements in a different proportion. If the metropolis of England had been on the Severn, the Humber, or the Tyne, who can say how much the written language might have been affected by this circumstance?"—*Eng. Cyclo.*

"Language has no independent substantial existence. Language exists in man; it lives in being spoken; it dies with each word that is pronounced, and is no longer heard. It is a mere accident that language should ever have been reduced to writing, and have been made the vehicle of a written literature. Even now, the largest number of languages have produced no literature. It is a mistake to imagine that dialects are everywhere corruptions of the literary language. The real and natural life of language is in its dialects. Even in England the local patois have many forms which are more primitive than the language of Shakespeare, and the richness of their vocabulary surpasses on many points that of the classical writers of any period. Dialects have always been the feeders rather than the channels of a literary language. Any how, they are parallel streams which existed long before one of them was raised to that temporary eminence which is the result of literary cultivation."—*Max Muller on Language.*

"The English are barbarians—stable in their manners, and firmly continue to employ the same words, which are also dear to the gods."—*Jamblichus.*

Sir Thomas Browne, the learned antiquary and physician, on his settlement in Norfolk in 1636, appears to have been struck with the local terms peculiar to the county, and to have made a beginning in the collection of "words of no general reception in England, but of common use in Norfolk, or peculiar to the East Angle countries." In his posthumous Tract, No. eight, 'Of Languages,' he gives a list of about thirty, as a sample,* and 'of these and some others of no easy originals,' he writes, 'when time will permit, the resolution (or reduction to their origin) may be attempted; which, to effect, the Danish language new and more ancient may prove of great advantage, which nation remained here fifty years upon agreement,† and have left many

* "Bawnd, bunny, thurck, enemmis, sammodithee, mawther, kedge, seele, straff, clever, matchly, dere, nicked, stingy, noneare, feft, thepes, gosgood, kamp, sibrit, fangast, sap, cothish, thokish, bide owe, pax-wax," comprise the examples of Sir T. Browne's collection.

† According to the monkish historians the district was overrun and conquered by the Angles, circa, A.D. 527. The invasion of the Danes is placed under the Saxon Chronicle, A.D. 787. In 871 they overran and devastated East Anglia, putting to death Edmund, the King. In 878 the province of East Anglia was ceded to Guthrun the Dane, by King Alfred. This seems to be the agreement to which Sir T. Browne refers.

A few years later, 884, their treaty engagements seem to have been broken by the Danes. The piratical Norsemen of Norway now commencing their career of Southern Conquest, made a landing at Rochester, and were beaten off by Alfred, some of them dispersing into East Anglia, when the Danish

families in it." Time or inclination to turn from his other multifarious scientific pursuits seem to have been wanting to the learned knight, for this Tract remains as his sole contribution to philology, a circumstance to be regretted, as his fitness for the task, and his extensive intimacy with the most eminent scholars, his contemporaries, would have drawn attention to our provincial dialects before so large a portion of their vocabularies had become obsolete or extinct.

Of the great commixture and alterations in our English speech he remarks, at the commencement of his Tract, "Nations that live promiscuously under the power and laws of conquest do seldom escape the loss of their language with their liberties." * * * "The Saxons, settling over all England, maintained an uniform language, only diversified in dialects, idioms, and minor differences, according to their different nations which came in under the common conquest, which may yet be a cause of the variation in the speech and words of several parts of England, where different nations most abode or settled, and having expelled the Britons, their wars were chiefly among themselves, with little action with foreign nations until the union of the Heptarchy under Egbert; after which time, although the Danes infested this land, and scarce left any part free, yet their incursions made more havoc in buildings, churches and cities, than in the language of the country, because their language was in effect the same, and such as whereby they might easily understand one another." The later Norman infusion, he adds, "proved not of ability to abolish the Saxon words, for from the French we have borrowed many substantives, adjectives, and some verbs; but the great body of numerals, auxiliary verbs, articles, pronouns, adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions, which are the distinguishing and lasting part of a language, remain with us from the Saxon, having suffered no great alteration for many hundred years."

Nearly a century before Sir Thomas Browne's attention had been drawn to the Norfolk dialect, a work had appeared and run settlers gave them aid. Alfred sent out a fleet which, at the mouth of the Stour, after capturing 16 ships of the Vikings, was overcome by another fleet hastily collected by the inhabitants. Alfred would subsequently have driven Guthrun from the country but for the help the latter received from Rollo, the future Duke of Normandy.

The treaty of Guthrun with Alfred is still extant, and defines the boundaries of the Danish rule, viz., the Thames, the Lea to its source, then to the right as far as Bedford, and thence up the Ouse to the Watling Street. At the date of it East Anglia had already been in the possession of the Danes fourteen years. *Lappenberg* remarks that East Anglia alone continued for any long duration a strictly Danish kingdom, forming, at the same time, the principal point of the settlement of the Danes in England, which only in later times, when East Anglia had again become English, was transferred to Northumbria.

through many editions which, beyond its priceless antiquarian value as a rude but faithful picture of the agriculture and social condition of the farming life of our ancestors, has a still further interest, inasmuch as it is the richest storehouse of the rustic dialect of East Anglia. In 1557 appeared our English Hesiod's "A hundreth good Pointes of Husbandrie," enlarged to Five hundreth Points in 1573. Like the Pilgrim's Progress, Tusser's homely rhymes found their admiring readers in the homestead rather than the hall; and well thumbed, were passed down from father to son till they crumbled away in the turning over of the leaves; and all the earlier editions, as a result, have become of an almost unique rarity. From his antiquated diction Tusser has been styled the British Varro: his work is the earliest instance of a book written largely in a provincial dialect, establishing a permanent position in English literature; it may be fairly termed the only one, for all others of this description are comparatively modern, and written mainly for the purpose either of rescuing from oblivion decaying local provincialisms, or of raising a laugh.

It is somewhat strange that Sir Thomas Browne makes no allusion to Tusser. Still more curious is it that the local words which abound in Tusser have had a much greater vitality than those collected by the knight. Of the twenty-six words which he cites, nearly two-thirds are now utterly obsolete and disused. And of the remainder, the larger part are not words, confined to the locality, or strictly dialectic. Tusser's consisting chiefly of terms used in husbandry and the protection of the marshlands of East Norfolk from inundation, have come down with but little change to the present day. Words like these, employed in the daily occupations of the people, are only liable to be superseded by violent and revolutionary changes. In this out of the way nook of our island, native words, as Sir Thomas Browne observes, "shut up in angles and inaccessible corners, divided by laws and manners, often continue long with little mixture." This isolated condition of the district has been compared to that of the county palatine of Chester, with its separate jurisdiction till the days of Queen Elizabeth, the chief families intermarrying with each other, and rarely forming connections out of the county, and a resemblance has been sought to be set up by Mr. Wilbraham, the compiler of the Cheshire dialect, of it with that of Norfolk. A careful collation of his enlarged glossary with the copious East Anglian vocabulary by Forby, has led the present writer, who was brought up on the borders of Cheshire, to a different conclusion. The only feature they possess in common is that each has retained within its borders an unusual number of local provincialisms and Archaic words, but they possess hardly a dozen of these in common. In Archaic words mainly confined to the use

of its own district, words strictly falling under Max Müller's term of class dialect—words employed in the colloquial speech of the marsh farmer and of the fisherman—East Anglia was particularly rich : in dialect, as defined by Richardson—"peculiar style or manner of expression, speech or language"—it is surpassed by the far broader pronunciation of Somerset, Lancashire, and other districts. To an archaeologist the study of the former must ever be the more interesting, although the latter opens up very interesting questions in ethnology.

Philology, the study of language, like its kindred science in the realms of physics, geology, is of recent date. Dealing like that most fascinating of modern studies, with problems of the greatest interest to our race, it has attracted many of the keenest of European intellects, whose energies, directed to the cultivation of an almost untrodden and virgin soil, have already brought to light a rich harvest of discoveries. Some of the most valuable have been lately exposed to the public gaze in the brilliant series of lectures delivered by M. Max Müller. For the dignity of his science, he claims the place of honour.

"Language," he exclaims, "has been called sacred ground, because it is the deposit of thoughts. We cannot tell, as yet, what language is. It may be a production of nature, a work of human art, or a divine gift. But to whatever sphere it belongs, it would seem to stand unsurpassed—nay, unequalled in it—by anything else. If it be a production of nature, it is her last and crowning production, which she reserved for man alone. If it be a work of human art, it would seem to lift the human artist almost to the level of a divine Creator. If it be the gift of God, it is God's greatest gift; for through it God spake to man, and man speaks to God in worship, prayer and meditation. * * * It is the one barrier of demarcation between animal and man which no one has yet ventured to touch."

The study of the science of language has many points of resemblance to that of Geology. Much of its exploration lies amid the debris of perished realms, extinct formations, bygone periods in the history of language, in the petrified strata of ancient literatures. "The study of words may be tedious to the schoolboy as breaking of stones is to the wayside labourer, but to the thoughtful eye of the geologist these stones are full of interest—he sees miracles on the high road, and chronicles in every ditch. Language, too, has marvels of her own, which she unveils to the inquiring glance of the patient student. * * * The saying that 'familiarity breeds contempt,' would seem applicable to the subjects of both these sciences. The gravels of our walks hardly seemed to deserve a scientific treatment." So of our rustic dialects, the scorn of vulgar prejudice. To the student of language, "Dialects, which have never produced any literature at all, the jargons of savage tribes, the clicks of the Hottentots, and the vocal modulations of the Indo-Chinese are as important, nay, for the solution of some of our problems, more important than the poetry of Homer or the prose of Cicero."

We have to thank M. Müller for directing attention to the value of our English dialectic vocabularies, and to the important place they occupy as the well-springs of that English language which seems destined to play so great a part in the world's future. Recurring, once more, to geologic phraseology there are, perhaps, no dialectic strata of greater interest than those of East Anglia. From East to West of Britain flowed the successive waves of Continental invaders, each leaving their deposit of language for the explorer of future ages to disinter, and decipher. Aboriginal, British, Gaelic, Kymric, Belgic, Roman, Anglian, Frisic, Saxon, Danish, Norwegian and Norman,—vestiges of every period and formation exist.

The dawn of European history is veiled in an obscurity which the most patient research has as yet but imperfectly explored. From East to West we dimly discern in the misty twilight the movement of successive swarms of Caucasian hordes across the plains of Central Europe, received in thinly peopled regions by the over-awed native populations as peaceful colonists, and exchanging their ancient nomadic and pastoral, for agricultural pursuits, or in more densely settled countries occupied by warlike races, waging exterminating strife with the aborigines for possession of the soil. In their apparently erratic movements,—in the ebb and flow of the various tribes, now driven forward by the hindward pressure of following multitudes—now shattered in their advance by the shock of opposing native or Roman armies—now compelled by famine, inundation, or pestilence—or by impoverishment of the soil from imperfect tillage,—a soil whose area was largely covered with forests and morasses—to seek fresh settlements,—there is a mingling and a confusion, which the very meagre historic records we possess fail to unravel, and which leave open to controversy a host of unsettled points in history, chronology, philology and ethnology.

At the earliest date of our history, we find Britain occupied by two Keltic races, the Gael and the Kymry. This duality of the race has been left to modern philological research to establish.

Camden and other British antiquaries affirm that the Kymry evidently once inhabited all the Eastern parts of England and Scotland.* Both races had migrated hither from the adjoining shores of Gaul. By some East Anglian scholars the presence of any Keltic element

* The writer of the introductory notice of Norfolk, in Kelly's Directory of the County, asserts that the names of its rivers are of Euskardian or Iberic origin, but adduces no proof. The Westward movement of the Iberic tribes is placed earlier by historians than that of the Kelts, by whom they were thrust into Spain. The solitary remnant of their dialects survives, but little impaired, in the Basque provinces of the Pyrenees. They are said to have crossed the Bay of Biscay to the coast of Cornwall. Dr. Arnold, in his History of Rome, Vol. I, accepts the judgment of Humboldt, that the Iberians were a people quite distinct from the Kelts. Humboldt expressed his disbelief in the Iberian extraction of any part of the inhabitants of the British islands.

in the antiquarian remains, or in the dialect of the district, has been denied; all vestiges, they assert, having been obliterated by the Saxon conquerors. "The whole history of mankind," writes *Mr. Forby*, "does not afford a stronger, perhaps not so strong an instance of the entire conquest and extermination of a whole people by an invading enemy. Of all proofs of such a conquest the most cogent and demonstrative is that of language. In our case, the language of the Invaders so totally superseded that of the original inhabitants, as to have soon become in body and substance the language of the nation." Unfortunately for *Mr. Forby*, the test of language to which he appeals is conclusive against him. There is no instance recorded of any nation having been exterminated by its conquerors. Apart from the considerable Keltic ingredient in our standard English dictionaries, there are many provincial words of daily use in East Anglia which, as our glossary appended shows, are of Keltic derivation. The steady Teutonic influx setting in upon our Eastern shores would very early banish the Kymric as the prevalent colloquial speech, and no evidence exists to show that it was used in either the Eastern or Midland counties at any modern period.*

Whilst the Anglo-Saxon etymologies of our language have been frequently and carefully traced out, the examination of the fragments of its "earlier formations" as existing in the Keltic, has but recently been taken up. Possessing the charms of comparatively undisturbed strata, certain to reward the patient explorer, the task has been entered upon with ardour, and many Keltic derivations of the highest interest and value have been brought to light; the only drawback attaching to the pursuit being the possibility of enthusiastic philologists extracting from their Keltic roots, deductions more sweeping than they fairly warrant. At the present day, Keltic is daily spoken by nearly six millions of the people of the British Islands, but the Kelts are no longer an independent race, having passed under the sway of the Teutons. In the earliest authentic annals we find them in possession of Germany, Gaul, Belgium and Britain; of Switzerland and the Tyrol; dwelling along the banks of the Danube; and in the fertile plains of Northern Italy, as far south as Etruria; and under

* An apocryphal story is told of St. Guthlac, of Croydon, to prove the existence of Britons in the Fenlands at a period long posterior to their conquest by the Angles. The Saint being disturbed one night by a horrid howling, was seriously alarmed, thinking that the howlers might be *Britons*: upon looking out, however, he discovered that they were only devils—whereby, he was comforted; the Britons being the worse of the two.

Mr. Kemble was one of the first to question the assumed extermination of the Keltic stock, from finding many names in our earliest records which he could not interpret from Teutonic sources, and "only to be understood by reference to Kymric or Pictish roots; and thus tending to suggest a far more general mixture of blood among the early conquerors than has generally been admitted to have existed."

Brennus (Welsh *Brenhin*, King), the terror and scourge of the infant Roman Republic. It is natural, therefore, to anticipate that considerable vestiges of their dialects should exist imbedded in the present languages of South and Central Europe.* We have abridged in the foot notes below, the most recent conclusions of modern scholarship on their existence in Britain, and on the Continent.†

* "The Keltic languages which still exist in these islands," remarks Dr. Arnold, *Roman History*, Vol. 1, are in all likelihood the solitary survivors out of a multitude of languages or dialects once spoken by the various branches of the great Keltic family, from the Atlantic to the source of the Danube, from the Mediterranean to the Northern extremity of the British islands."

† One of the best accepted accounts of the origin of Gaelic is the theory of *Humphry Lhuyd*, which makes the entire original population of the British Isles to have been Gaelic, to the exclusion of any Britons. It makes a large portion of the Continent also Gaelic. The Britons were a later and intrusive population: a population which effected a great and complete displacement of the earlier Gaels; their relation to the aborigines being thus that of the Anglo-Saxons to themselves at a later period. Gaels first, then Britons, lastly the Angles.

The Rev. John Davies, and other eminent living Keltic scholars, see no reason for denying the substantial accuracy of the Kymric History of Britain, —According to the *Welsh Triads*, the Island of *Prydain*, or Britain, was divided into three parts—*Albyn*, which lay to the North of the Clyde and Forth—*Lloegria*, which lay to the East and South, and *Cambria*, which comprised the intervening districts to the North and West of the Lloegrians. All were aboriginal and Keltic. Later, three invading tribes permanently settled among these native inhabitants; the *Coranians*, or *Coriniadd*, who came from the country of *Pwyl* (Poland); the second were the Irish Picts who came to Albyn by the North Sea; the third were the *Saxons*. The *Coranians* settled on the Humber, and the shores of the German Ocean; the Picts in Albyn, about the shore of the Sea of Denmark; the *Coranians* and *Saxons* united, and by violence and conquest brought the *Lloegrians* into confederacy with them; and, subsequently, took the crown of the monarchy from the tribe of the *Cambrians*. And there remained none of the *Lloegrians* that did not become *Saxons*, except those that are found in Cornwall, and in the Commot of Carnoban, in Delra, and Bernicia (Yorkshire and Durham).

Another theory, which derives the Welsh Kymry from the *Cimmerians*, is that mentioned by *Camden*, and more recently adopted in Rawlinson's Translation of Herodotus, Notes to Book IV.—Between B.C. 800—600, the *Cimmerii*, *Gimiri*, or *Gomerim*, were powerful in Western Asia and Eastern Europe. This is noticed by Greek writers from Homer to Herodotus, and Ezekiel speaks of *Gomer* as a nation. In the Babylonian and Assyrian inscriptions, the Scythic population spread over the Persian Empire are called *Gimiri*. When the Scythians crossing the Don fell on the *Cimmerians*, dwelling on the shores of the Black Sea, the latter, it is argued, must have gone West. Whither did they go? We can only find them among the Kelts, who had an unvarying tradition that they came from the East, and of whom one branch bears the special name of Kymry, a name shared with the *Crim Tartars* of the *Crimaea*, one of their ancient homes.

*The most numerous people of primeval Germany were the Gaelic branch. They were, also, the earliest to arrive. This is indicated by the fact that throughout Germany we find no Kymric, Slavonic or Teutonic names which have undergone a Gaelic metamorphosis. Hence we may infer the Gaels on their arrival found Germany unoccupied, and that their migration was of a

No traditional account of the Keltic occupation of East Anglia has been handed down by either the British bards, or the Saxon chroniclers. Of the earliest in point of time, the Gaelic, it would have been impossible to prove that it had ever taken place, but for the results of modern etymological investigation, which seem to confirm the opinion broached by several Keltic scholars, that East Anglia was Gaelic, rather than Kymric, in the pre-Roman epoch. The few Gaelic topographical names in England, are met with chiefly in the Eastern parts of the island, along the coast. Whilst the Anglo-Saxons altered the names of the towns, cities, and hamlets of the country, the original Keltic appellations of the mountains, rivers, and valleys, were left unchanged, and appear to possess an imperishable vitality. A number of these Keltic names, existing in East Anglia, will be found in the note below.*

peaceful character. Next came the Kymry, as conquerors, and in numbers fewer than the Gaels they found in possession. This we gather from the fact that there are comparatively few pure Kymric names in Germany, but a large number of Gaelic which have been Cymricized. From the topographical distribution we infer the Gaels arrived from the East, the Kymry from the South.'—*Rev. Isaac Taylor's Words and Places.*

Lastly, we give the opinion advanced by Henry Morley, in his *English Writers*, Vol. 1, 1864.—“I think there can be little doubt that the first Kelts who came to Britain were the Gaels, and that they settled in Ireland and the West of England. Irish and Spanish histories and traditions agree in asserting that the Irish Gael came from Spain. From Ireland the Gael crossed to the Western Islands of Scotland, and re-crossed also into Wales. Welsh scholars have at all times observed traces of a previous Gaelic occupation of their land. One vestige is the constant use by the Romans of *Isca*, *Isca Silurum*, &c., for river or water in the West of England, the word being the Gaelic *uisge* which is not Kymric, and still survives in the Exe and Esk. The tradition of the common people in North Wales asserts that the original inhabitants were Gwythelians or Irish.

After the departure of the Romans, the Kymry made common cause with the Saxons against the Gaels and the Picts, forcing them back into Ireland. Very remarkable illustration of this is afforded by the recurrence five and twenty times in Wales, and 20 out of the 25 in North Wales, of the name *Gwyddel* (for *Gaedhel*), attached to places which may have been remaining strongholds held by the Gaels after their main body had been expelled. All the sites indicate pressure from the East towards the sea, and are in old passes, morasses, or places at which a last stand could be made.

Whilst the Gaels have maintained their footing in the Highlands, the Picts, whom etymology has proved to have been of Kymric origin, and who occupied Lowland Scotland, were later absorbed by the influx of Irish Gaels on the western coast, and of Teutonic tribes on the east and south.

Tacitus says that the Silures or people of Wales, and the Brigantes, or people of the North of England, in his time resembled the people of Spain more than they did the other Gauls in language and appearance. *Silures* (men of the *Syl*, plural *Sylur*, Kymric, of the soil). *Brigant* is Welsh for thief and highlander.

* In the following and later etymological notes great assistance has been derived from the labours of a distinguished East Anglian scholar, the Rev. Isaac Taylor, whose *Words and Places*, 1864, forms an epoch in English topographical research.

Gaelic etymologies.—The Gaelic form of *Cean*, headland, as distinguished from the Kymric *Pen*, head, is traceable in the five great headlands of East

The British or Kymric was closely, the Gaelic more distantly allied to the ancient tongue of the Gauls. From this affinity, remarks *Latham*, we obtain an argument *against* any extreme antiquity of the Britons of the British Isles. The date of their separation from the tribes of the continent was not so remote as to obliterate and annihilate all traces of the original mother tongue.

That the Latin tongue was not established in Britain as in Gaul by the Romans, is shown by its non-appearance in the occupations or religion of the natives.* This has been sought to be accounted for in the fact of the Roman legionaries being drawn from a diversity of the races which the empire had subjugated and drafted into its armies. That Roman civilization had taken root rapidly in Britain is shown by the early existence of lawyers and money lenders. Within twenty years of their first contact with the Romans, we find the sudden calling in of a heavy loan of 10,000,000 sesterces, (£81,000) by the philosopher Seneca, assigned as one of the causes of the revolt of the Iceni. During the Keltic period, British civilization was far more advanced than is ordinarily supposed. The country which Cæsar traversed during his invasion he observed to have been cleared and ploughed, and he found the corn harvest gathered in. We read of war chariots (*rhodawg*, from *rhod*, a wheel,) forming the chief military strength of the natives, and for these, roads would be requisite.

A chief cause of the displacement of the Keltic by the Anglian,

Britain, from Cantyre (*Cean-tor*, head of the land) to Kent, by the old names of tribes, Cantii, Iceni, Cantæ, Cantabrigæ, (Cambridge) Canty Bay, and the Pentland Hills and Frith, where the Kymry next in possession have only half transformed the name of *Kentland*.

Magh, Gaelic, for plain or field. Dunomagus, the present Dunmow, Essex. Sitomagus, the present Thetford. Three rivers called Ouse are found on our East Coast, derived from the Gaelic *uisge*, water, current, whence also Ousebeach, Wisbeach, &c.

Kymric etymologies.—The river Yare, *flumen Gariensis*, Welsh *gario*, rough, (river) the Waveney, *wafien*, waving or troubled; the Deben, in Suffolk, *debyn*, the steep or headlong; the Thorne, in Norfolk, *dwr*, water, the Stour, Suffolk, *ys dwr*; Venta, the common name of the Roman chief cities in Britain, as Venta Icenorum. (Caistor) is a Latinization of *Gwent*, a chief city. Lynn, *lyn*, a lake or pool, the city of the pool. Trowse, Norwich, *traws*, a pass; Brandon, Suffolk, is the anglicised form of *Dinas Bryn* common in Wales, from *dinas*, a city, *bryn*, a ridge. A ridge in Essex is also called Brandon: Braintree, Essex, and Brancaster, Norfolk have the same root.

Mr. Taylor remarks that in Essex and Suffolk there is a smaller proportion of Keltic names than in any other district of the Island, which would indicate that the Germanization of these counties was of a very ancient date.

* There can be little doubt that a number of Latin words were imported into the speech of the Britons—names of objects with which their contact with the Romans first familiarized them. The introduction of some of these was subsequently attributed to the Latin missionaries of the Anglo-Saxon era. Rome gave to Britain, besides its roads and buildings, the framework of its laws, commerce and material civilization.

lay in the total dissimilarity of their grammatical structure.* Failing, also, in that rude and barbarous stage of our history, the aid to be derived from any written literature, the language of the conquered gave way to that of the victors, who, undoubtedly, however, borrowed from them the use and names of many objects of civilization which the Roman occupation had introduced, and which were new to the Teutonic invaders.† The majority of the

* From these causes it has mainly resulted that the Keltic has never incorporated itself with any adjacent English provincial dialects.

“It is not the least remarkable feature in the dialect of Shropshire, that it should have borrowed scarcely any words directly from the contiguous territory of Wales, and I think this fact may serve to prove that the English language as spoken by Salopians, in an agricultural district is marked by extreme accuracy and purity. Totally dissimilar in all its forms of speech, and in its terminations, the language of Wales seems to have presented an insurmountable barrier.”—*Hartshorne's Salopia Antiqua*.

“The Herefordshire dialect, although spoken on the borders of Wales, and coming in contact with the Welsh language, contains few words borrowed from the Welsh.”—*Sir G. C. Lewis Glossary of Provincial words in Herefordshire*.

Of the tenacity of a mother tongue many instances abound, “It is a curious fact,” says a writer in the *Statistical Account of Scotland*, vol. xx., p. 490, “that the hills of King's Seal and Craigy Burns, which form the lower boundary of Bowally, Perthshire, have been for centuries the separate barrier of the English and Gaelic. In the first house below them, the English is, and has been spoken; and the Gaelic in the first house, not more than a mile distant above.”—*Lewis's Romance Languages*.

† The Angles and Saxons, writes *Lappenberg*, when they had established themselves in Britain, dwelt within Roman walls, and walked amid spacious structures and beautiful works of Roman art. The remote Caerleon had its theatres, temples and palaces, of which *Giraldus* speaks in terms of high admiration. *Beda* mentions the Roman towns, lighthouses, roads and bridges existing in his time.

However skilled the Romanized Britons may have been in husbandry, it must nevertheless be observed that all the agricultural implements in use among the Anglo-Saxons bear German names, as *egida*, harrow; *plow*, plough; *sicol*, sickle; *flegil*, flail; *raca*, rake. The measures of land are also German, *æcer*, acre; *rod*, rood.

The late *Rev. R. Garnett*, in his *Philological Essays*, writes:—“The inquiry with which we are more immediately concerned is, whether the Germanic tribes, and more particularly the Anglo-Saxons, adopted words of Celtic origin, and to what extent? That some such process did take place is probable in itself, and confirmed by the experience of many parallel cases. The Romans themselves adopted various Gallic words; and our intercourse with the East has served to introduce a number of Persian, Indian, and even Chinese terms into our own language. We learn from *Cæsar*, and other Roman writers, that the Gauls, though inferior to the Greeks and Romans in civilization, were more advanced than the Germans, and we know that the colonial Britons, prior to the breaking up of the Roman Empire, had acquired all the useful and ornamental arts of the Romans. The invading Franks and Anglo-Saxons consequently found many implements, processes, and artificial productions, of which they previously knew little or nothing; and what is more likely, that they should partially adopt the names by which they were designated.” *Mr. Garnett* proceeds to give a lengthy list of Welsh names for familiar objects, all of which have been grafted into the English language.

Among proofs of the extinction of a British population in East Anglia, we

latter intermarrying with the British women, their children would imbibe, as it were, with their mother's milk, more or less of the maternal dialect, and to this source we owe that large and unsuspected Keltic element, which to this day intermingles with the Anglo-Saxon staple.

Cæsar writing of his conquest of Gaul, speaks of Britain as already densely populated, "*Hominum est infinita multitudo, creberrimæque ædificia.*" He adds, "that the interior of Britain is inhabited by those who are recorded to have been born in the island itself; whereas the sea coast is the occupancy of immigrants from the country of the Belgæ, brought over for the sake of either war or plunder. All these are called by names nearly the same as those of the states they come from." Whence then did these Belgæ come? Of the three races occupying Gaul in the time of Cæsar, the Belgæ were the people occupying the northern portion, comprising Holland, Belgium, Flanders, Picardy, part of Normandy, and other coast provinces. They were the most powerful of all Gaul, as farthest removed from the Romans they had been least subject to their contact, and as nearest to the Germans with whom they were always at war, their martial habits were kept in exercise. The Belgæ had expelled the Gauls or Kymry from their territories, the latter crossing over to Britain, and forming the bulk of the race later driven westward by the Saxons into Cornwall and Wales. The fate of Britain was similar to that of Gaul; the conquering Kymry having found the Belgæ at their back before they had time to turn themselves round in the habitations of the vanquished Gaels. Whilst Dr. Pinkerton and other English writers of last century have held that the Belgæ, described by Cæsar, were of Teutonic race, and altogether separate from a Keltic stock, more recently, the contrary opinion has been upheld by French and German historians and philologists, who pronounce them to have been of Keltic origin; and that the Welsh, or find that in Domesday Book, 25,000 of the native population are registered as *theowas*, *ceonas*, unfree or servile. They appear most numerous in the territories where the British population maintained itself the longest, on the South Wales border, where a proportion of one slave to every third freeman existed, and in Cornwall, Devon and Staffordshire, where it was 1 to 5. The farther we remove from the border, the smaller is the proportion, yet in all the Saxon States, and in Kent, it always constitutes an average of one-tenth. In the old East Anglia, their proportion is scarcely half that last mentioned. From the want of replenishment by prisoners of war, and also through the influence of the clergy, it later wholly ceased.

'In Wales, the change of language now in progress is accompanied by very little infusion of Saxon blood. And so, in Mercia and Wessex we must believe that the bulk of the people is of Celtic blood. The Saxon keels cannot have translated any very numerous population, and the *Ceorls* or *Churls* were, no doubt, the pure blooded descendants of the Celts of Britain.'

'In the will of King Alfred, Dorset, Somerset, Wilts and Devon are enumerated as "*Wealh-cynne*," a phrase which proves that these counties were then thoroughly Keltic in blood and language, although politically they belonged to the Anglo-Saxon Commonwealth.'—*Rev. I. Taylor.*

Britons, were descended from them.* This view was maintained by Thierry in his *Histoire des Gaulois*, and by the distinguished modern historians of Rome, Niebuhr and Dr. Arnold, but is now disputed by several modern philologists. Ptolemy mentions that there were British tribes having the same names with communities in Belgic Gaul. On our South coast were a tribe called merely *Belgæ*, whose capital was *Venta Belgarum*, or Winchester. East of them were the *Regni* and the *Rhemi*; and North of these the *Atrebatii*, all tribes synonymous with Belgic tribes in Gaul.† Parallel with the *Atrebatii*, to the East were the *Iceni*, a powerful tribe, occupying Norfolk and Suffolk; and the *Trinobantes*, dwelling in Hertford and Essex—tribes connected by political relations with Belgic States on the Continent; and, therefore, to be included with the greater probability among the tribes of Belgic origin. Reasoning from these premises, Dr. Prichard, in his *Researches into the Physical History of Mankind*, concludes it probable that the *Iceni*, who were among the most civilized of the Britons, were also *Belgæ*.‡ Before invading Britain, B.C. 55, Cæsar, who lived for nine years in the heart of Gaul, and who was the first Roman to cross the Rhine, enquired of the *Belgæ* into the character and condition of the island. They asserted that many of their race had migrated thither the century preceding; and that a close connection had been maintained between the kindred tribes.|| Cæsar complains that his enemies in Gaul had frequently received succour from an invisible arm stretched forth to them from their allies in these

* If we look at the local, national and individual names of the *Belgæ*, we find that they agree so closely in form with those of the undoubted Gauls as to be wholly undistinguishable, and the names of their chiefs are equally Gallic.—Latham's *Ethnology of British Islands*.

† "In Ptolemy's survey of Britain, the *Belgæ* are said to have occupied a district including nearly the whole of Hampshire, Wiltshire and Somersetshire, stretching across from the Hampshire Coast to the shore of the British Channel. The people of Sussex and Surrey were then called the *Regni*. *Rhegn* in Kymric is 'cursed,' and *Belg* is a 'ravager.' Celsus quoted by Oudendorp, says that the *Belgæ* were indignant if they heard themselves called Gauls; nor did they speak of themselves as *Belgæ*. The name 'ravagers' would be given them by the Keltic tribes they dislodged."

‡ Merivale, in his *History of the Romans under the Empire*, remarks that the Belgians who, in Cæsar's day were the latest settlers on the British shore, "seem to have been easily reclaimed from the wild habits of their forest life by the civilizing influences of the coast and a navigable river." * * * The extraordinary rapidity with which the Eastern ports sprang into commercial celebrity, discovers a natural aptitude in the race, which their subsequent history has so fully confirmed."

|| B.C. 57, the Britons of Kent first appear as either tributaries or subjects to one of the Gallic chiefs Divitiacus, King of the *Suessiones*, or people of *Solsons* in Champagne; so that they are members of an important political federation before a single Roman plants his foot on their island. Next year we find the *Veniti* of Brittany calling on the Britons for aid, which is afforded them in ships and sailors, the *Veniti* being amongst the most maritime of the Gallic populations.

remote colonies.* It is not until a century later, that during the conquest of Britain under Claudius, we meet with the first recorded account of a native race occupying East Anglia—the Iceni.† Unfortunately, the narrative by Tacitus of the first six years of Claudius is lost, and we are deprived of his story of the invasion of Britain under Aulus Plautius, A.D. 43. We read from Dion Cassius, and other meagre sources, that the troops mutinied when their destination was first announced. After the Roman forces had established their footing they were joined by Claudius. The southern neighbours of the Iceni, the Trinobantes of Hertford and Essex, who, in the time of Cæsar were described as the most powerful of all the British tribes, were the first to be attacked.

‘With the Emperor himself at their head, a spectacle not beheld since the days of the valiant Julius, the Legionaries traversed the level plains of the Trinobantes, which afforded no defensible position, till the natives were compelled to stand at bay before the stockades which encircled their capital Camulodunum,’ (Colchester). In the engagement which followed, the Trinobantes were utterly routed, and their city wrested from them became the base of the Roman military operations.

The Iceni, jealous of their neighbours, had stood aloof under their wealthy King, Prasutagus, (in the words of Tacitus, *longâ opulentiâ clarus*;) yielding as tributaries, until later, the vexatious imposts of the Romans goaded them into insurrection and defeat.

Plautius was succeeded, A.D. 47, by Ostorius Scapula. To insure the Roman supremacy, he determined to disarm all whom he suspected, and overawe them by a chain of forts; a policy resisted by the Iceni, in the words of Tacitus, “*valida gens, nec proeliis contusi*;” but who were now to meet with a retribution for their desertion of the Trinobantes. Under their leadership the neighbouring tribes chose a battle-field which, debarred from egress at the rear, occasioned them a sanguinary defeat. The Ninth Legion was stationed in their territories to watch over them. A.D. 61, occurred the revolt under Boadicea, widow of

* *Quod omnibus fere Gallicis bellis, hostibus nostris inde subministrata auxilia intelligebat*, are Cæsar’s words. Enumerating the British tribes he places next to the Trinobantes, the *Cenimagni*, a name which has given rise to much conjecture. *Lipsius* and *Camden* regard it as a corruption of Iceni, Cangi. It may be Iceni Magni. We read, amongst the tribes of Gaul, of the *Cenomani* whose capital *Suindinum* lay at no great distance from the angle where the coasts of Brittany and Normandy unite. Were the *Cenimagni*, the inhabitants of East Anglia, a colony from this Gallic tribe?

† The Iceni,—or Ikeni, compare the local names Ickleton, Icklingham, Ickworth, Ixworth, on the line of the Icknield Street which ran through the centre of their territory. Icknield Street, the road of the Iceni went from Yarmouth, or Calstoe, past Taesburgh, Icklingham, Exning, Ickleton, Royston, Baldock, Dunstable, Tring, Wendover, to Streetly on Thames, whence the Ridge-way along the hills, or Ickleton Street, went on to Salisbury, and thence by another Ridge-way to Weymouth. At Icklingham, in Suffolk, were settled the Icelings, the noblest family of Mercia.

Prasutagus, the most memorable incident in the Roman occupation of Britain—a revolt provoked by the outrages of the Roman military colonists.

'Prasutagus,' writes Tacitus, 'king of the Icenians, a prince long renowned for opulence, had by will appointed the emperor joint heir with his own two daughters: judging that by such an instance of loyalty, he should place his kingdom and family out of the reach of harm: a design which turned out so contrary to his anticipations, that his realm was ravaged by the centurions, and his house by slaves; as if they had been the spoils of war. First of all, Boadicea his wife was subjected to stripes, and his daughters ravished, and, as though the entire region had been a donation to the plunderers, all the principal Icenians were spoiled of their hereditary possessions, and the relations of the king were made slaves of. Enraged by these indignities, and dreading oppressions still more severe, for they were reduced into the form of a province, they flew to arms; having roused the Trinobantes to join in the revolt; as well as all others who, not yet broken by the yoke of servitude, had secretly covenanted to recover their liberty, from their implacable antipathy to the veterans. For those who had been recently planted in the colony of Camulodunum had thrust the people out of their houses, and driven them from their lands, calling them captives and slaves. These outrages of the veterans were encouraged by the common soldiers, from similarity of occupation and the hope of enjoying the same privilege. They had also before their eyes a temple erected to the deified Claudius, which they regarded as the citadel of endless domination; priests too were appointed, who, under pretence of religious rites, exhausted their whole substance.'

In the same historian's pages will be found, briefly told, the story of the revolt; the frenzied uprising of the Britons; their slaughter of 70,000 Romans, "civium et sociorum;" their sack and destruction of London and Verulam, and the obliteration of the twenty years' civilizing labours of the hated oppressor. By the promptitude and resolution of the Roman general, Suetonius, the insurrection was brought to an end in the battle fought near Colchester, where, after relating the utter rout and butchery of the Britons, Tacitus adds, "the soldiers spared not even the lives of the women, nay, the very beasts, pierced with darts, served to swell the heaps of the slain." Almost 80,000, he records to have perished. Fresh troops were brought over from Germany, on whose arrival *the ranks of the Ninth Legion were filled up*; the cohorts and allied cavalry were posted in new winter quarters; and such of the British tribes as had been doubtful or opposed, were ravaged with fire and sword. Nothing, however, distressed their enemies so much as famine, for in their brief triumph they had neglected to sow the ground; and their people of every age had been sent to the war, anticipating a certain spoliation of the Roman supplies.

So, quenched in blood, perished the kingdom of the Iceni, the earliest race recorded as occupying East Anglia. The question arises, were they of the Keltic or Teutonic stock. Mr. Merivale, the most recent of our historical writers, inclines to the latter opinion—

"There can be no doubt that Frisians, Saxons and Danes had settled on the

Eastern coast of Britain before the Roman invasion. It seems probable that the Anglican character of the population of Norfolk and Suffolk dates from the pre-Roman period. Hence we might account for the want of union between the Iceni and the Trinobantes. The name Iceni, still retained in many localities of the district, as Icknield, Ickworth, &c., has certainly a Teutonic sound."—*History of the Romans under the Empire*, Vol 6.

Later on, after narrating the revolt under Boadicea, he adds, "From the slender account we have received of this outbreak, it would seem to have been confined to the Iceni, which makes it the more probable that these people were a different race from the Celtic Britons." Mr. Merivale, however, cites no writer, Greek or Latin, in support of this view. If the Iceni had been of a different race, the Roman historians would have probably noticed the fact, and we might have expected to find them at war with their neighbours. The only ill-feeling existing seems to have been a jealousy of any supremacy of the adjoining tribes. From the large forces engaged in the revolt it could not have been confined to the Iceni. Tacitus describes the insurgents as "*gentes præferoces*," and includes amongst them by name the Trinobantes. In both the struggles of the Iceni against the Romans, he speaks of them as influencing and leading other tribes.* Mr. Merivale's conclusions are also at variance with his notice (Vol. 1) of the Belgæ settled on the coasts of Britain in the time of Cæsar, whom he admits to have been of Keltic derivation, and whose aptitude for commerce, as very early displayed on our Eastern coast, he eulogises. We incline to the opinion that the Iceni were like the neighbouring British tribes, Keltic. Their final revolt led to exterminating reprisals; and their desolated and confiscated lands were occupied by the German colonists,† who recruited the Ninth legion, and from this very early date in the Roman occupation, a Teutonic influx set steadily in upon East Anglia.

W. Baxter, the antiquary, first suggested in his *Glossarium Antiquitatum Britannicarum*, 1733, that the territory of the Iceni extended quite across the centre of England, embracing several tribes, a theory adopted by Mr. Beale Poste, and other modern writers. The *Cenimagni*, mentioned by Cæsar, are placed in Norfolk and Suffolk, with Sitomagus (Thetford) as their capital. Next to them came the Iceni *Girvii*, (cattle-tenders) named by Bede, occupying Cambridge and Hunts. Adjoining them dwelt the *Iceni Coritani*, of Tacitus and Ravennas, peopling Lincoln, Notts, Rutland, Leicester, and Northants. Westward lay the *Cangi*, in Derby and Staffordshire. South-west dwelt the *Cornavii*, of Cheshire and Sa'op, the *Ordovices* of North Wales dwelling the chain of tribes. Some other writers, whilst assigning to the Iceni territories stretching to the West, as did those of the Trinobantes, place them lower down; a theory resting chiefly on the statement of Tacitus, that the first uprising of the Iceni against the Roman power was caused by the erection of forts on the Severn and Avon by Suetonius, designed to overawe them. The most generally received accounts, following the opinion of Camden, restrict the Iceni to Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridge and Hunts, preferring to read the *Aufona* (Avon) of Tacitus, as the *Autona* (the Nene).

+ We gather from a number of notices in the later Greek and Roman annalists that the bulk of the Roman legions stationed in Britain were composed of the German races.

The materials for a thoroughly authentic account of the Anglo-Saxon Conquest of England do not exist; nor have we any reliably accurate geographical description of the countries whence the invaders migrated. Modern criticism has shattered the credibility of the accounts compiled by the monkish chronicles, and accepted by Sharon Turner and other historians.* Philologists have latterly turned their attention towards the chroniclers who recorded the Saxon Conquests of Charlemagne, for evidence of the localities, manners, customs and languages of the various German races, and to Tacitus, and other Roman historians for still earlier evidence, and to obtain an internal evidence, have submitted such fragments of manuscript literature as have come down to us, to the searching test of comparative grammar, dealing with the literary and provincial dialects generally and collectively, as elements and ingredients of a single tongue.

The Anglo-Saxon which has come down to us, and which forms the groundwork of the English language, is not grammatically identifiable with the remains of any Continental dialect, but approaches nearest to the Low German, or Old Saxon branch of the Teutonic. This agrees with the early history of North Germany and the Netherlands, at the period when the Roman armies dislodged from Central Europe and drove North and West large masses of half-civilised races, whose line of retreat lay along

Towards the close of the period of Roman occupation, the 'Notitia utriusque Imperii,' compiled between the years 369 and 408, describe the administration of a Saxon Shore, (*Littus Saxonicum*) in Britain and in Gaul. The *Littus Saxonicum*, in Britain, appears from the places named in it,—Bran-caster, and Burgh Castle, in Norfolk; Othina in Essex, (now engulfed in the sea,) Dover, Lympne, Reculvers, and Richborough, in Kent; Pevensey and the river Adur, in Sussex;—to have extended from the Wash, to Southampton Water.

* As they are still accepted by some writers as authentic, we give the assigned dates of the six recorded settlements of England:—commencing A.D. 449, they are distinguished as follows:—I.—A.D. 449, a mixed invasion of Kent, chiefly Jutes. II.—477, Old Saxon invasion under Ella, and settlement of the kingdom of Sussex, or the South Saxons. III.—Landing under Cerdic in 495, and establishment in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight of the Saxon Kingdom of Wessex, or the West Saxons, later the most important. IV.—530, Saxon settlement of Essex, and kingdom of the East Saxons. V.—Anglian settlement of Norfolk and Suffolk, cotemporary in time with No. 3. VI.—547, Anglian settlement under Ida of the districts between the Tweed and Forth, extending later South as far as Nottingham. Each of these settlements working slowly their way inland increased their area of conquest.

Note omitted from preceding page:—

* A further proof that Tacitus did not limit the insurrection to the Iceni, is given in his *Agricola*. Narrating that commander's engagement with the Britons at the foot of the Grampians, he places in the mouth of Galgacus, their leader, the following among other incitements addressed to his troops.—'The *Trinobantes* under the conduct of a woman, extirpated a colony and forced their castra, and if success had not slackened their diligence they might have entirely freed themselves from the Roman yoke.'

the banks of the Rhine, the Elbe and their tributaries;* a movement which, lasting over several centuries, peopled the flat and swampy shores of the German Ocean with a multitude of fragmentary tribes and languages. Pliny has described these lowlands as undiked, the people living on artificial mounds, whilst vast woods and morasses kept the population scattered and apart, grouped into hostile clans, with rival interests and dialects of widening divergence. Anglen, the district which has given its name to the migration—was a small triangle in Sleswick, not larger than Rutland, and although we read that it was depopulated by the wholesale departure of its people, could not have supplied singly the swarms who invaded and conquered the British occupants. Throughout the whole of Germany there is no one district which in its existing dialect shows definite signs of descent from the ancestors of the Angles of England. Their Continental progenitors are either exterminated or fused with other German races, a fusion largely effected by Charlemagne's conquest and conversion of the old Saxons. "It was in a period of darkness and disturbance when classical literature had died out, and the literature of Christianity had not developed, that Keltic Britain became transformed into German England."

The colonization of England by the Germanic tribes is shewn by modern philologists to have extended over many centuries, commencing much earlier than the dates conjectured by our monkish chroniclers. It was not the work of pirates and savages, bent on plunder and havoc; rather a steady migration of pastoral and civilized races, urged by the selfsame causes which, in our day, impel the surplus population of Europe to the shores of the

* *The Rev. C. Kingsley* in his *The Roman and the Teuton*, preface to Lecture III, leans to a theory that the Teutonic races came originally from Scandinavia, Denmark, the South Baltic, &c., forcing their way, wave after wave along the line of least resistance, between the Roman Empire and the Sclavonians, downwards by the valley of the Danube; and that the Teutonic populations of England, North Germany and the Baltic, are the descendants much intermixed, and with dialects much changed of the portions which were left behind. This theory, which Mr. Kingsley alleges is held by several great ethnologists, it will be seen entirely reverses the direction taken by the European migrations of the pre-historic era, and is opposed to the current of almost all previous traditional, historical, and philological speculation. Could the scanty populations of Scandinavia throw off swarms of sufficient magnitude to effect this movement? Their descents upon our own little island effected no permanent conquests, or any sensible change in its people or dialects. Is it possible to harmonise this theory with that Indo-Germanic origin, and steady westward tidal flow of races and languages which now finds universal acceptance? What becomes of the Keltic races and dialects occupying Central Europe at the date when Mr. Kingsley places this migration? The grave philological difficulties involved, Mr. Kingsley thus very summarily dismisses:—

"If philological objections are raised to this, I ask (but in all humility), did not these southward migrations commence long before the time of Tacitus? If so, may they not have commenced before the different Teutonic dialects were as distinct as they were in the historic period? And are we to suppose that the dialects did not alter during the long journeyings through many nations?"

New World. The new settlers brought with them a higher civilization, which coming in contact with a lower, gradually overpowered the latter, incorporating in the process many of its institutions, usages and dialect. From internal evidence drawn from their language, we have proof that the new settlers came provided with a knowledge of letters; of metals and their uses, of nearly all the domestic animals; that they cultivated oats, barley, wheat, rye and beans;* built houses of timber, and thatched them; and acknowledging the right of private property; they hedged their fields and fenced their gardens. With that steadfast tenacity, and that love of order which are the great characteristics of the race, they laid their foundations broad and deep over the length and breadth of England, stamping in the soil their laws and languages so firmly that the later invasions of Danes and Normans proved unable to efface or obliterate them.

"The history of the smaller states," remarks *Lappenberg*, "contributing to form what by later writers has commonly, though erroneously, been called the Heptarchy, is almost wholly lost * * * None of these States excites the curiosity of the historical enquirer so much as that of East Anglia, which, inhabited by Germans, probably before the time of Hengist and Horsa, entirely surrounded by German neighbours in no contact with the Britons, must necessarily have presented a most faithful picture of Teutonic antiquity.† Even at the present day, in no other part of England do so many well preserved German names of places declare who where their ancient lords and founders. Many remarkable traditions, though hitherto not sufficiently investigated and sifted for use as materials of history, are preserved relative to this district.‡ Its position was particularly favourable

* Dr. R. C. A. Prior, in his recently published *Popular Names of British Plants*, 1864, deduces from their derivations some interesting conclusions. The German settlers must have migrated from a colder country; whilst the names of Teutonic derivation comprehend the oak, beech, birch, hawthorn and alce; trees that extend far into Northern Asia: they do not comprise the elm, chesnut, maple, walnut, holly, sycamore, or any evergreen, except of the fir tribe, or any fruit tree except the apple. For all these they adopted Latin names; a proof that when they first came in contact with the Romans on the Lower Rhine, they were not settled inhabitants, but foreigners, newly arrived from regions where those trees were unknown.

† Authentic records of their Essex neighbours are equally scanty. "The history of no Anglo-Saxon state is so defective as that of the East Saxons."—*Lappenberg*.

‡ East Anglia, writes *Lappenberg*, contains a rich store, little known, and still less investigated, of old traditions. Among its Sagas existing in MS. are those of King Atla, of Northfolk, the founder of Attlebury, a poem of 12,000 verses; and that of Roud, King of Thetford. It owns also the more wide spread one of Havelok or Cuhan, (Cwiran) king of Northfolk, and son of Ethelbert the Dane, who dwelt in that county before the time of Hengist and Horsa.

The old poem of *Beowulf*, pronounced by a competent critic, Mr. Garnett, to be the most remarkable production in the whole range of Anglo-Saxon literature, is believed by Mr. Kemble to be an Anglian poem, founded on

to an intercourse with the old Saxons, and we may regard not only London, in those remote times, but also the East Anglian ports, Lynn, Yarmouth, and Dunwich, as resorts for Frisic, Saxon, and Gallic mariners, and members of the several commercial guilds or 'hausers.'"

The Teutonic conquest of England was effected mainly by two kindred races, the Angles and the Frisians; the latter occupying the coast from the present Belgium northwards to Friesland, the former dwelling in the territories lying to the east and north of the Frisians, the present Oldenburgh, Hanover, Holstein, and Jutland. The country of the Angles appear to have been beyond the outstretch of Roman domination, and its people would probably first come in contact with its civilization in Britain. Reinforced by kindred tribes from inland, migrating hosts set forth sufficient for the gradual overpowering of the British. The question arises, How came the name of Saxons to be applied to them? It was unknown to Tacitus and Strabo, and first appears in Ptolemy. As a new name for the coast population, spread north and south of the Elbe, it came into use during the second century, supplanting the other local names. All the settlers in England called themselves alike the Angle folk, and the name was probably applied to them by the Kelts and Romans, like that of Welsh (foreigner) given by the Angles to the Kymry.* The word Anglo-

legends which existed previous to the Angle conquest. Its German translator Ettmüller, remarks that neither the name of Angle or Saxon occurs in it. Recently, the Rev. D. H. Haigh, an East Anglian scholar, in his *Anglo-Saxon Sagas examined*, 1861, ascribes its composition to a Northumbrian, and enters into an elaborate argument to prove that its events are laid in England, and not in Sweden or Denmark, as previous critics assert. The royal residence of Hygelac he places at Uggeshall in Suffolk. Covehithe is the port of Beowulf's embarkation for Hartlepool. His later wars with the Mere-Wiowings, or Sea Wiwings, the founders of the East Anglian kingdom in the sixth century, are traced to their settlement of Wiveton in Norfolk.

The names of nations appear to have been affixed to them from without—

* Caesar, Tacitus, and other Latin authors, speak much of the *Germani* as a Teutonic people; but the Teutonic nation that we now know as Germans, call themselves *Deutsch*; and there are but slight grounds for believing that they ever called themselves German, or that *Germani* is a Teutonic word. Who, then, first bestowed the name of *Germani* on the tribes of Germany, or of the banks of the Rhine? We say the *Gauls*, or a Celtic people, since the words *German* and *Allman*, or *Allemanni*, are Celtic words. In Welsh, *All-man* is a man of (all) another (*man*) place, and *Ger-man* is a man of (*Ger*) Near (*man*) place, or a neighbour; and so I conclude that the Gauls called some near tribe on the banks of the Rhine *German*, and more remote ones *Allmann*. The French of our day call the Germans beyond the Rhine *Allemands*, and their land *Allemagne*.—Rev. W. Barnes.

The etymology of Saxon has been derived from the *seax*, a short knife-like sword, the use of which was a distinctive mark of the Low German races. So, also, the origin of the Franks has been derived from their use of the *franca*, a kind of javelin; and the Longo-bards or Lombards, from their long *partisans* or halberds.

Neither of the Keltic branches seem to have called themselves Britons; nor

Saxon is said to appear first in Asser's Life of Alfred, where he is termed *Anglo-Saxonum Rex*. It seems to have been employed subsequently to distinguish the English or Anglo-Saxons from their continental progenitors. At the close of the settlement of England, the Britons are found in Cornwall and Wales, the Jutes in Kent, the Saxons in Wessex, along the Thames and in the southern counties previously colonised by the Belgæ. In northern, central, and eastern England, the Anglian element prevails. Whilst laying down these boundaries, all writers on the period fail to define clearly the differences of race and original home of the Teutonic invaders.

An attempt has recently been made by Donaldson, in his *Essay on English Ethnography*, to define the distinctive characteristics which mark the Anglian from the Frisic or Old Saxon elements in the Anglo-Saxon invasion, placing the Frisic in our Southern Counties, and the Anglian in the Northern or Eastern; but the only proofs, in the existing absence of reliable historic records—those based on similarity of race or dialect are altogether wanting in his argument.* What distinctive differences mark at the present day the physique, dialect, and mental characteristics of the natives of Wessex, East, Middle, and North Anglia still remain to be discriminated, and to trace them backward to their prototypes, drawing sharp lines of demarcation where for a thousand has any clue to the name been found in their dialects. It appears to have been applied from without, from the Iberic mariners, the Basque or Euskarian *itan* signifying a country, supplying the root.

Wales, a peculiar and curious word, now the name of a country, was formerly that of a people, *Wealhas*, plural of *Wealh*. Of Teutonic origin it indicated the outside dwellers on their borders, other than *Deutsch*; *Welschland* is a German name for Italy. The root appears in the *Valais Walloons*, *Wallachia*.

* Dr. Donaldson seeks to prove the identity of Saxon and Angle. The Old or Low Saxons he points out were a race differing from the present High German stock occupying Saxony, and who did not assume the name of Saxons until 1423. The Frisians, or Batavian Saxons he places upon the coast from Belgium northwards to Bremen; and from that point eastwards including Hanover and Holstein, he locates the Angles. Accepting the six settlements of England recorded by our chroniclers, as given in our note, page 437, he assigns to the *Friso* Saxons of the Batavian coast, who, he asserts, had High German ingredients in their composition, what are known as the Saxon settlements of England—Essex, Sussex, Middlesex and Wessex—the *Anglo-Saxons* colonising East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria. Later on, when he comes to notice the dialects of the various districts, those traits which characterise Suffolk, 'which belongs to that part of East Anglia where the Anglian element was purest,' Mr. Donaldson shows to be 'regular Frisian.' But this, and the whole of the concluding part of his *Essay* are at direct variance with its earlier propositions. 'It is the Anglian portion of England,' he asserts, 'which has most consistently preserved those characteristics to which this country owes its greatness.' Surely, it is not to the Hanoverian and Pomeranian that England owes by descent her seamanship, her love of freedom, commercial instincts, perseverance, tenacity, learning, solid sense, but to the Hollander, as Dr. Donaldson himself admits. Then what becomes of his argument that the Anglians are not of Frisic origin?

years all has been movement, intermixture, and fusion, would be a task of as great difficulty as it will be five hundred years hence to distinguish in the valley of the Mississippi the precise localities of the original settlers from Munster and Connaught. The provincialisms of more than half our counties have been as yet but imperfectly catalogued, and a considerable advance on the present condition of English linguistic palæontology will be requisite.* Along our Eastern coast we find the largest proportionate Teutonic element, and on the Western and Southern Coast, of Keltic. The compilers of the meagre glossaries of our Southern Counties have persistently looked to the Anglo-Saxon for their derivations, ignoring the three primary Keltic strata of Gaelic, Kymric, and Belgic, although no part of England suffered less invading disturbance than Wessex, which lay farthest from the homes of the Northern immigrants. It was in the Anglian districts that the largest Teutonic occupation took place, and it was also in them that the Danes later made their chief inroads and settlements.†

The Rev. Isaac Taylor, has described an unsuccessful search for the home of the invaders in Hanover, between the Elbe and Weser, in the etymological nomenclature of that region. Continuing his examination Southwards, he came upon the Northern half of Wurtemberg, a district anciently known as Swabia, the land of the Suevi,‡ a race whom Tacitus locates near the Angli, and whom

* Not the least of the inherent difficulties of the task would arise from the circumstance that the Teutonic tribes migrated hither at a period when their native dialects were at their maximum of multiplication, instability and confusion. *Mr. Marsh* remarks that the dwellers on the coasts of the North Sea have now been Christianised for a thousand years, during which period all religious and all political influences have powerfully tended to the extirpation of local differences of speech, and to the reduction of the multiplied patois, if not to one, to two or three leading dialects. And yet, at the present day, every hour of travel as we advance from the Rhine to the Eider, brings us to a new vernacular. "Within the space of three hundred miles we meet with at least a dozen mostly unwritten dialects; not only so discrepant as to be mutually unintelligible to those who speak them, but often marked by lexical and grammatical differences scarcely less wide than those which distinguish any two Gothic, or any two Romance tongues. There is not a shadow of proof; there is no semblance of probability, that the inhabitants of these coasts spoke with more uniformity fourteen centuries ago than to-day, but every presumption is to the contrary."

† "We find the central kingdom Mercia, though mainly Anglian, containing more of the old native ingredients than any of the kingdoms of the coast. For, as the invading hosts advanced, they necessarily left part of their forces behind to secure their communications, and the coast populations would thus increase in Teutonic intensity by every contribution to the German central population. Many years elapsed after the Conquest before the Northern part of the kingdom was subdued."—*Donaldson*.

‡ "Both Tacitus and Ptolemy," writes *Mr. Garnett*, "describe the Angli as a tribe of Suevi, an account which we believe to be confirmed by the numerous coincidences between the dialects of South Germany and those of our Anglian and Northumbrian counties. Indeed, we have our reasons for

Ptolemy speaks of, as one division of the Angles. The local names Mr. Taylor, found to be surprisingly identified with those in Anglo-Saxon charters. Of 344 patronymics in *ing*,* 266 occur also in England, proving conclusively that the village of Wurtemberg and many of those in England, were settled by men bearing the same family names. These Swabian names terminate almost universally in *ing-en*.†

The Low German branch of the Teutonic includes amongst its ramifications the Old Saxon, Friesian, and Dutch, all of which are more or less fused in English speech. Our rustic dialects are as old as the Anglo-Saxon colonisation of this country; and their distinctive peculiarities are partly due to the dialectic differences of the various Northern tribes who gradually settled over the face of the kingdom, clinging together for mutual support. The very large element infused by the Friesic and Batavian races, whose homes lay opposite our Eastern shores, has been overlooked by many writers. Their legendary traditions claim Hengist and his invading host as their countrymen.‡ Our colloquial words of every-day life are more nearly allied to the old Friesic than to any other branch of the Platt-Deutch. Our modern English sign of the infinitive mood *to*, in connection with the Anglo-Saxon thinking that the language of the Angles was in many respects more a German than a Saxon dialect, and that it differed from the speech of Kent, Sussex, and Wessex, both in words and grammar."

"In what place the Angles lived is a debated point, and the opinions concerning it are various. Most authors place them in Westphalia, where Engern now stands, and where the Suevi-Angli, mentioned by Tacitus and Ptolemy, had their abode. With whom I agree, if they mean of Tacitus' age; but I fancy they came down afterwards to the sea coasts."—*Camden's Britannia*.

* *Ing*, the most important of Anglo-Saxon names, is the family patronymic occurring usually in names of places as a medial syllable, ex., *Billingham*, the home or residence of the family of Billings. It has much the same significance as the prefix *Mac* in Scotland, *O'* in Ireland, it is the clan (Gaelic *cluin*, children) name. Whilst the Saxon immigration was one of clans, the Scandinavian colonization was that of soldiers of fortune, and hence the names of their settlements are those of the individual adventurer, whilst those of the Teutonic race are the names of the family or clan:

Where, as is most frequent, *ing* appears as a medial syllable with the terminations *ham*, *worth*, &c., Mr. Kemble suggests that these were "filial settlements, or, as it were, colonies from the others." The greatest number of these forms, in proportion to the size of the counties, Mr. Donaldson states are to be found in Kent and Norfolk, the counties in which the first mixed and the first Anglian settlements respectively were planted.

† This *ing-en* is probably a phonetic corruption of *ing-hen*, and its Teutonic variations, *heim*, *hem*, *ham*, and the common Anglo-Saxon ending *ing-ham* is thus arrived at.

‡ The legendary names of the chiefs who led the invading hosts to Britain Hengist and Horsa.—Dr. Donaldson asserts are synonymous terms, one signifying "a horse," in High German, the other, the same animal in the Low German, *hingst* being Friesian for horse, and *hros* Anglian. The *White Horse* was the ensign of the invaders, the Frisians calling it their *Hengist*, and the Anglians their *Horsa*.

termination in *an* or *en*, is found in this language alone of the Teutonic stock. *Wick*, a termination of common occurrence in Norfolk, as in Holland, is of Friesic origin.* *Ham*, the most frequent of all East Anglian local endings, is Frisic;† and found along the whole coast of the North Sea. It is equally common on the south eastern side of Cambridgeshire, gradually fading away as we advance westward. A common dialectic peculiarity of this district, specially in Suffolk, which is not a corruption, but an archaism—the pronunciation of land, sand, and other words where *a* follows *n*, as *lond*, *sond*, is pure Friesian, and is of frequent use in old English writers.‡

* It is pronounced *veih*s in Gothic, *wich* in High German, *wik* in Friesian.—*Professor Leo*.

† *Ham* is found only in the proper Friesic and Anglian territory. Fries, *ham*; Old Sax, *hem*; Germ, *heim*; Old Fries, *hama*, *hemma*, to enclose. Whatever obstructs or is obstructed, hems in, or is hemmed in, is called *hamm*, or *hemme*; whether it be a forest, a fenced field, a meadow, a swamp, a reed bank or isolated lowlands won by circumscribing with palisades an area in the bed of a river; indeed, even a house or a castle was so called by the Friesians.—*Professor Leo's Treatise on the Nomenclature of the Anglo-Saxons*.

Outzen also writes that, "in the country of the Angles, as well as here (in North Friesland), every enclosed place is called a *hamm*."

Wedgewood, in his *Dict. of Eng. Etymologies*, under *ham-let*, writes, "In Friesland the term *ham* is used to designate a piece of marshland, or the piece of land in which a village is situated," quoting the *Bremisch Nieder-Sachsches Worterbuch*.

Francis Junius, after a long scrutiny of the whole Germanic antiquity in regard to languages, after the compilation of glossaries of almost every dialect of the race; after a stay of two years (1652-4) in those parts of Friesland noted as tenacious of their old manners and language—this scholar declared it as his opinion that of all the Germanic tongues none approached so closely to the Anglo-Saxon as the Friesian.—*Bosworth, preface to his Ang.-Sax. Dictionary*.

‡ A paper was published in the Transactions of the Philological Society for 1858, by M. de Haan Hetteema on what Elements are to be found common to the Dutch, Friesian and English languages. This gentleman states that after an examination of the English Provincial Glossaries compiled by Forby, Grose, Halliwell and Wright, he proceeded to write down above 4,000 words which are, with slightly varied forms, the same in all these languages. In this collection he has purposely omitted words which being allied with Anglo-Saxon, exist also in Dutch and Frisian, and also those words which, seemingly derived from the Latin or French, are also almost the same in Dutch and Frisian.

M. Hetteema disparages the four glossaries cited above, as containing principally words which are found in old English authors, and but very few which have been taken down out of the mouths of the people. As regards Mr. Forby's glossary, this accusation is so singularly incorrect that it weakens the value of M. Hetteema's other critical assertions. The most marked feature of Forby's collection is, that the words were taken direct from the lips of the people, and are *not* accompanied by illustrative quotations from old writers. Had Mr. Forby appended a series of such extracts, gleaned from East Anglian authors, the value and interest of his labours would have been considerably enhanced in the eyes of students of the English language. The glossaries of Wright and Halliwell professedly garner up the gatherings of local collectors, appending to them extracts from early writers to show their existence and current use at particular eras in the history of the language, their purpose being literary rather than philological elucidation.

Of his list of 4,000 kindred words, M. Hetteema publishes 1,000 as a

The Danish conquest of East Anglia, the earliest of their English kingdoms, has been already noticed (page 442). Lying too near the centre of the Anglo-Saxon power, it was neither so permanent or enduring as their more northern settlements. Its colonization appears to have been mainly confined to the sea board and along the courses of the rivers, and as these Danish settlements are chiefly derived from the names of individuals, they would seem to have been rather the head quarters of chieftians than the permanent abodes of a number of colonists. *Dr. Latham* infers that these settlements were generally small, from the extent to which the names are compounded in *by*, and a noun in the genitive case singular. The Yarmouth Danish settlements, he concludes, may have been either direct from Scandinavia or secondary settlements from Lincolnshire. Of the existing ethnological evidences of the Danish occupation of this coast, the writer is unable to offer an opinion,* but large and indubitable proof of it exists in the remarkable patronymics which abound along the whole line of seaboard.†

specimen. In examining these we confess to a feeling of disappointment at finding how small a proportion are strictly East Anglian provincialisms; but in the absence of the remainder and much larger body, it would be hazardous to draw any positive conclusions, more especially as he admits that he has used *Mr. Wright's* glossary as his chief groundwork. Such as are East Anglian we have noted in our glossary. The words *M. Hetteema* has printed are purely provincial words met with all over the kingdom, and help to confirm the belief advanced by *Junius*, *Bosworth* and others of the large Friesic element in the English language. They supply, however, no proofs in aid of *Mr. Donaldson's* Friso-Saxon theory, quoted in note, page 441.

* Among the fishermen of Hastings, who are evidently a distinct race from the generality of the townsmen, there appear to be marks of a descent from the Frisians or Danes: there is a close resemblance between them and the men of Yarmouth, in the neighbourhood of which there are traces of the Danes, particularly in the termination '*by*' in the names of places (which termination does not exist in *Sussex*), and in the pronunciation of the Hastings fishermen. —*Cooper's Provincialisms of Sussex*.

† The following names drawn exclusively from Yarmouth and the villages of the Broads and the coast northwards to Cromer, have been taken from *Kelly's Directory*. From a considerable number copied out, a selection has been made. We give 1st, those of probable Scandinavian origin:—*Skipper*, *Trory*, *Frary*, *Siely*, *Gedge*, *Kerridge*, *Kettle* (*Ketill*), *Harbord*, *Rutten*, *Tubby*, *Wigg*, *Thaine*, *Juby*, *Womack*, *Bane*, *Skoyles*, *Nockolds*, *Shreeve*, *Trett*, *Sowels*, *Muskett*, *Agus*, *Hallock*, *Shalders*, *Shrimplin*, *Fiske*, *Postle*, *Atlee*, *Cliperton*, *Thurtle* (*Thor-ketill*), *Seago*, *Garthon*, *Olley* (*Olaf*), *Mack*, *Rounce*, *Sidle*, *Vial*, *Brock*, *Crome*, *Gedney*, *Gourlay*, *Tolver*, *Bessey*, *Hacon*, (*Haco*) *Shaul*, *Shuckford*, *Teasdel*, *Yaxley*, *Costerton*, *Febb*, *Peek*, *Blake*, *Cory*, *Minner*, &c.

Names with the Scandinavian patronymic *sen*: *Belson*, *Morrison*, *Hutson*, *Empson*, *Grimson*, *Kerrison*, *Annisson*, *Waterson*, *Dowson*, *Watson*, &c.

Names with the Saxon patronymic *ing*:—*Rising*, *Eagling*, *Witting*, *Utting*, *Hardingham*, *Suffing*.

Donaldson, in his *Essay on English Ethnography* prints a long list of Suffolk surnames, waiting for elucidation. Of this list, the *Rev. I. Taylor* remarks that several are to be found also in the *Ländnamabok* of Iceland. He adds, 'The sons of *Njal* were *Skarphethin*, *Helgi*, and *Grimm*; these three names are common in Norfolk, in the form *Sharpin*, *Heely* and *Grymes*.

The most important of the Danish settlements in East Anglia were those in the Hundreds of East and West Flegg (Norse *Flegg*, Danish *vlak*, flat), lying at the back of Yarmouth, on the margin of those Broadlands which once formed part of the original extensive estuary of the Yare and its tributaries. The names of almost every hamlet are of Norse derivation, compounded of some common Danish personal name and the suffix *by*,* spelt in Domesday *bei*,—ex., Billockby, Clippesby, Filby, Herringby, Hemsby, Maltby, Ormsby, Rollesby, Scratby, and Stokesby. A number of other Danish names are found scattered over the County of Norfolk—some of which since the compilation of Domesday Book have undergone alteration†—as in Henstade Hundred, the village of Fiskele, now called Bexley; Kirkebei, now Kirby Bedon; Porrikelanda, Rokelunda, and others; and in Clackclose Hundred, Torpelanda has merged into Wallington. The Danish village of Thurketeliart, near Aldby, has been engulfed. Carbois-torp is now Shouldham Thorpe. Other Danish names are Wormegai, Corpestig, Kestlestuna, Thurstuna, Overstrand, Syderstrand, North and South Repps, and those ending in *thorpe*. Norwich is also probably Norse.

The most reliable test of the original settlement and relative extent of occupation of a country by various races is that derived

* Mr. Robberds in adducing evidence to support his geological theories on the Eastern valleys of Norfolk, discusses the termination *by*, which is commonly assumed to indicate a Danish occupation, and denoting a dwelling; a meaning, however, which the Ang.-Sax. *bye* possesses equally with the Danish. In opposition to Spelman, Camden, and Gibson, he prefers, in the Norfolk examples to look for their original derivation in the Ang.-Sax. *byge*, a corner, bay or bight. In every instance in the district he asserts that the places ending in *by* stand upon the bendings of the valleys up which, at a former period, the tidal waters flowed. Of the numerous villages terminating in *by* in Lincolnshire, most of them he describes to be similarly situated in the fen districts which were formerly overflowed. Along the Baltic the same ending occurs under the same physical conditions.

Mr. R. C. Taylor, replying to Robberds, describes a different nomenclature as existing in Suffolk. The numerous small bays in Lake Lothing, Oulton, and other Broadlands being provincially called *hams*. Of the 40 parishes skirting the edge of the marshes between Norwich and the sea at Kirkley, a district abounding in similar interior bays, one parish only terminates in *by*, six in *ham*, and sixteen in *ton*. He remarks that all the boundaries of the counties, hundreds and local jurisdictions of the district are the rivers which wind through the various marshy valleys.

† 'These topographic words,' remarks the Rev. I. Taylor, 'which float down upon the parlance of successive generations of men, are subject in their course to less phonetic abrasion than the other elements of a people's speech.'

What says another Suffolk writer, Major Moor, on this point? "As in other counties, we have a habit of altering in discourse the names of places. For instance, East Bergholt we call Barfel; Burgh, Bath; Bruisyard, Bridgit; Dunningworth, Dunnafr; Waldringfield, Wannaful, &c."

And is not the 'phonetic abrasion' of the names of the various stations, as bawled out by railway porters, a never-failing source of amusement to passengers?

from the names of its localities. An analysis of the nomenclature of Norfolk, taken from Kelly's Directory of the County, gives the following results.—168 places end in *ham*, 135 in *ton*, 78 places (chiefly the 'hams,') have *ing*, as a medial syllable, and 24 places end with *ing*, 26 end in *thorpe*, 21 in *ford*, 21 in *by*, 19 in *burgh* or *boro'*, 19 in *ley*, 15 *ey*, 13 *wick* and *wich*, (almost all inland,) 13 in *sted*, 9 in *field*, 8 *worth*, 7 *sett* or *sæt*, 6 *wood*, 8 *well*, 4 *hoe*, 4 *den*, 3 *holme*, 5 *toft*, 3 *bourne*, 2 *thwaite*, 2 *wold*, 2 *strand*, 3 *haugh*, 6 *mer*, 1 each, *holt*, *shaw*, *heath*, *cot*.

The Rev. I. Taylor's analysis of Suffolk endings, gives 84 *ham*, 88 *ton*, 17 *ing*, 5 *thorpe*, 12 *borough* or *bury*, 31 *field*, 27 *ley*, 1 *wood*.

The relative proportions of these endings in the two counties are not greatly dissimilar, both exhibiting a preponderance of habitable localities, and an extreme paucity of hilly or woodland sites. The per centage of Keltic, Saxon, and Danish nomenclature in Suffolk, Mr. Taylor computes at 2 per cent. Keltic, 90 Anglo-Saxon, 8 Norse.* In Norfolk, from the number of *thorpes*, *tofts*, *bys*, *fields*, the Norse per centage is larger.†

* The Rev. I. Taylor in his *Words and Places* gives a table of 'the intensity of the Scandinavian element of population as indicated by village names. The actual number of names he states to be—in Lincolnshire, about 300; in Leicestershire, Westmoreland, Cumberland, and each of the Ridings, about 100; in Norfolk, Northampton, Notts., and Lancashire, about 50; in Durham and Northumberland, 20; in Suffolk, Derby, Cheshire, Rutland, and Pembroke, 12; in Bucks., Beds., and Warwick, half that number.

† A number of places on the Essex coast have Danish names ending in *ford* (fiord), *ness*, *hoe*, *by*, *wick*, and *thorpe*.

In Suffolk,—Ipswich, Dunwich, Walberswick, Orford, Chillesford, Thorpe, Barnby, Kirkley, and Lowestoft are Danish.

North and South Repps are from the Icelandic *hreppr*, plotted out by the hrepp or rope, as the Saxon *hy:le* was measured off by a leathern thong.

The whole of the Essex coast is lined with names ending in *wich*. About thirty of the farm houses in the salt marshes bear this name. Their more probable derivation is thought to be from the Ang.-Sax. *vic*, a marsh, German *weich* soft.

Thorpe, *throp*, or *trop*, is a gathering of men or houses, in villages. Old Norse, *thyrping* a gathering, Fries., *thorp*. Very common in Denmark and East Anglia: it is very rare in Norway; does not occur in Lancashire; only once in Cumberland.

Toft, a homestead, is also distinctively Danish and East Anglian, and rare in Norway and Cumberland.

Holm, Norse, denotes an island in a river; *Haugh*, Norse, *haugr*, a mound; *Holt*, Frisic, a wood.

Thwaite is distinctively Norwegian, denoting like the Saxon *field*, a forest clearing; common in Norway, it occurs 43 times in Cumberland, and not once in Lincolnshire; while *thorpe*, the Danish word occurs 63 times in Lincolnshire, and once only in Cumberland.

By or *bye* is the Norse term for a dwelling or single farm. North of Walling Street there are 600 instances of it; south, hardly one. There are scores of it in Jutland and Sleswic, and not half-a-dozen in the whole of Germany.

Ton, Anglo-Saxon, is 'an enclosed place or homestead; Old Norse, *tun*; Dutch *vertuinen*, to hedge about, the root existing in all Teutonic dialects,

Turning to the Scandivian sources of our language, we find that at an early period a unity of speech pervaded the Norse races; and that at a time not far remote, the Icelandic tongue was spoken in Denmark, Norway and Sweden. Shielded in its Slavonic, *tuin* a hedge. It has been made a test word to discriminate the site of Anglo-Saxon settlements. Although the most common of English local terminations, Latham and Taylor remark that there is scarcely any instance of its occurrence throughout the whole of Germany. In *Doomsday Book* it is invariably written *tuna* or *tune*, and in this form occurs not unfrequently in Sweden.

Ley is a pasturage, *ey* or *oe* an island, Anglo-Saxon and Norse; *sted*, Anglo-Saxon, *stede* a place, *worth*, Anglo-Saxon, like *garth*, denotes an enclosure, a place warded or protected, *hoe* Teutonic, a hill, *mer*, Anglo-Saxon, a fen or marsh, *mere* a lake or pool.

The Ang.-Sax. *fords* are passages for men and cattle across rivers; the Norse *fords* or *fjords* are passages for ships up arms of the sea.

Ford Ang.-Sax. and Norse, is in either case derived from *faran*, to go.

Ford, Welsh, means a road or passage, whether over a stream or dry land

The Ang.-Sax. *wick* was a station on land, the Norse *wic* a station for ships, a creek or bay; and hence the *Vikings*, or 'creekers,' derived their name. Endings in *wick* and *wich*, so common in England, are found on the continent only in Friesland and Old Saxony.

Ness naes, naze, Norse, a promontory or nose of land, Lat. *nasus*—of frequent occurrence from the Thames to the Humber.

Beck, a brook; *haugh*, or *how*, a hill; *with*, a forest; *tarn*, a pool, and *dall* a dale, are Norse terms, more frequent in Norwegian than in Danish regions.

Norwegian *dale*, Ang.-Sax. *dell*, Germ *thal*. When *dal* is a prefix, it is usually a corruption of the Keltic *dol*, a field.

Burgh and *Brough* are Anglian and Norse, as are probably four-fifths of the *boroughs*, while *bury* is the distinctively Saxon form.

Anglo-Saxon forms are *Church* and *Ship*, whereas, Danish are *Kirk* and *Skip*, as Orms-kirk and *Skip-ton*. The distribution of these last forms over the British Isles closely coincides with that of the compounds in *by*. Generally, in compounds of this kind, the Danish form *Kirk* is a prefix, the Anglo-Saxon *Church* an affix; e.g. *Kirkly*, *Offchurch*.

Where the Angles said *Chester*, the Danes used *Caster*; the Danes also used *orm*, rather than *worm*, ex., *Ormesby*, *Ormskerk*, *Ormesgill*. Our patronymics ending in *son*, are Danish, ex. Thomson Jackson, Johnson, Stevenson, Nelson, &c: the Ang-Saxon term for descent being *ing*. Johnson, one of the commonest of English names, is also of equally frequent occurrence in Iceland.

In our English names of localities, which are almost universally compounds, the wider and more general signification comes last; e.g. *Stantun*, or *Sandwich*, the *town* characterised by *stones*, the *wic* characterised by *sand*. The same remark equally applies to the Anglo-Saxon personal names.

The Rev. Isaac Taylor, in his *Words and Places*, remarks that the distinctive characteristics of English local names indicate that reserve and seclusiveness which form the most striking feature of the national temperament. Their commonest terminations *ton*, *ham*, *worth*, *burgh*, *bury*, &c., all denote inclosure or protection, ideas of private right, which the Teutonic suffixes on the Continent do not carry to the same effect. As more than half of the Keltic names contain the roots *llan*, *kil*, *bally*, which have a similar import, he draws the conclusion that this love of inclosures is due, more or less, to the Celtic population absorbed by the Saxon colonists.

If we turn to a good Atlas of Europe, we shall find the most frequent terminations in the North of Europe to be as follows:—In FRIESLAND,

native county by isolation, it has undergone but slight change; whilst in the Scandinavian kingdoms it has been exposed to a variety of alien influences. The difference in the articulation of kindred dialects, exposed to identical influences has, as yet, been but slightly investigated; and falls within the province of ethnology. Great discrepancies exist at the present day between the pronunciation of Swedish and Danish, which no known facts account for. Whether the Danish element existing in the English language—notably in its dialects—was brought over by the colonising Angles, or is due to the piratical Norsemen who ravaged the North of England, and were the scourge of its Eastern shores, is a disputed point. Philologists have remarked that the number of Danish idioms is by no means proportionate to the preponderance of the forms in *by*. The occupation of England by the Danes was of too brief a duration to affect very materially the character of the people or their language. It was limited, also, in its extent. The Danish language never seems to have exerted any profound influence on the English or Anglo-Saxon. It was too nearly allied to the Anglo-Saxon to produce any great change in the idioms of the country. Its greatest peculiarity the post fix; its negative *ikke*, and its plural form of the substantive verb, as well as its numerals have never been transferred to our language. Most of the so-called Danish words are derived from the parent stock, the old Norse, to which Frisian, Flemish, and Low Dutch are allied. Many words of Norse derivation, terms of seafaring and fishing import, and hitherto not included in our provincial glossaries, are in use at the present day along the east coast seaboard and in the fishing villages.

The Norman invaders were of Norwegian rather than Danish descent. It was in the reign of Alfred that they first settled in France, and marrying the Keltic women of Normandy became fathers of a race which early forgot its origin; conjecturing its cradle to have been upon the Danube. From the blending of the Norse high courage, daring, and adventure, with the Keltic vivacity, a race was created, which crossed with the stedfast and stubborn Anglo-Saxon, has produced the noblest stock of existing European races. Compared however with the existing English population, the influx of a Norman element was of a limited character.

The incursions of the Scandinavian races are the latest which

OLDENBURG, and HANOVER, *ham* or *heim*, often corrupted to *um* and *en* varied occasionally by *dorf*, *hausen*, *holt*, *stedt*, and *berg*. In HOLLAND, *heim*, *um* and *en* are most prevalent; *dam*, *dorp*, *berg*, *veld*, also occur. In SCHLESWICK, *en*, *stedt*, *dorf*. HOLSTEIN, *strup*, (corruption of *thorpe*) *sted*, *dorf*, *worth*. JUTLAND, *ing*, *berg*, *by*, *rup*. ZEALAND, *by*, *sted*, *bek*, *berg*, *sted*, *lov*, *ing*. SWEDEN, *bo*, or *by*, *fors*, *holm*, *berg*, or *borg*, *skar*, *vik*, *stad*, *strand*. NORWAY, *stad*, *thal*, *fjord*, *nes*. ICELAND, *holt*, *fell*, *dalt*, *stadr*, *berg* and *borg*: on the coast, *nes*, *sandr*, *hofn*, *vik*: in the creeks, *fjodr*.

have exercised any material influence on our English rustic speech. With the Norman Conquest, England ceased to be the battle field of the Gothic races and their dialects. At this stage, the infusion of the Teutonic and Norse elements into the English language terminate; and henceforward commences that process of blending with the Latin and its Romance dialects, which, continuing over nigh a thousand years, has so amplified, enriched, invigorated and refined our native speech; developing into one harmonious whole the two noblest languages of Europe, the Teutonic and the Romance; the former supplying the material ground work; the latter, the intellectual conceptions. An unconscious reaction set in; and we behold all those great writers from Chaucer, downwards, who have built up for us our unrivalled literature, turning successively to the language and writings of Latin descent for materials to enrich the warp on which their great imaginings were inwoven. It is a strange and unique spectacle, that sudden, total, and complete severance through so many ages of the English language and genius from its parent stem. It has been reserved for a writer of our own day, Thomas Carlyle, to call the attention of his countrymen to the excellencies of the neglected and depreciated literature and language of their Teutonic kinsmen.

Up to this period, the English language had been almost exclusively colloquial. The native Anglo-Saxon literature was very meagre and scanty;* the perpetual state of war distracted the attention of rulers; the Latin introduced by the Church engrossed the study of the clergy; and such literature as was produced in the monasteries, from the imperfect existing means of multiplication and circulation, addressed, also, purely to a very limited body capable of reading, was too insignificant to exert much influence in shaping the structure of the language.† This colloquial speech had taken many centuries to weld into an imperfect degree of uniformity. It was now brought into steady and persistent contact, by our Norman rulers, lay and clerical, with the Romance languages of the South, which, full of youthful vigour and growth, were derived indirectly from sources, durable, fixed and petrified, in that classic Latin which generations of grammarians, orators, poets, and historical writers had elaborated and

* *The genuine Anglian dialect*, Mr. Thorpe, one of our chief Anglo-Saxon scholars, pronounces to be that which is usually denominated the Northumbrian. The near resemblance which existed in Anglo-Saxon times between the Northumbrian and East Anglian dialects, he illustrates in his *Analecta Anglo-Saxonica*, by several examples. The most remarkable deviations of the East Anglian dialect from pure Anglo-Saxon were the use of *b* for *f*, *e* for *æ*, *u* for *w* and *b*, *i* for *e*, and *a* for *o*, *l* for *hl*, *i* for *ge* prefix. A fragment of Anglo-Saxon poetry, of appalling power, which has come down to us, *The Grave*.—'For thee was a house built,' &c., is written in the East Anglian dialect.

† We find the spelling of the Ang. Sax. M.S.S. diverse, uncertain, and confused. Of the word "give," no less than eleven different spellings appear.

polished to a fastidious perfection, resulting, as has been so forcibly shown by Max Müller, in the destruction of its native vitality.*

Our language may be said to diverge from this point into two main streams, a colloquial and a written; the one, henceforward, fed mainly by native, the other by foreign tributaries. The latter, strengthened and enlarged by the continued influx from the new and living springs opened up, forming also the language of the governing classes, and supported alike by the powers of Church and State, it was easy to foresee would, in process of time, overshadow the other. The Anglo-Saxon element grew weaker with each successive age. From the Conquest to the thirteenth century, we have a dialect termed *semi-Saxon*. What has been called by philologists *Old English*, extends from the latter date to the close of the fourteenth century; passing into *Middle English*,

* "After having been established as the language of legislation, religion, literature, and general civilization, the classical Latin dialect became stationary and stagnant. It could not grow, because it was not allowed to change or to deviate from its classical correctness. It was haunted by its own ghost. Literary dialects, or what are commonly called classical languages, pay for their temporary greatness by inevitable decay. They are like stagnant lakes at the side of great rivers. They form reservoirs of what was once living and running speech, but they are no longer carried on by the main currents. * * No literary language can ever be said to have been the mother of another language. As soon as a language loses its unbounded capability of change, its carelessness about what it throws away, and its readiness in always supplying instantaneously the wants of mind and heart, its natural life is changed into a merely artificial existence. * *

The classical Latin is one out of many dialects spoken by the Aryan inhabitants of Italy. It was the dialect of Latium, in Latium the dialect of Rome, at Rome the dialect of the patricians. It was fixed by Livy, Ennius, Nævius, Cato, and Lucretius; polished by the Scipios, Hortensius and Cicero. It was the language of a restricted class, of a political party, of a literary sect. Before their time, the language of Rome must have changed and fluctuated considerably. Polybius tells us that the best informed Romans could not make out without difficulty the language of the ancient treaties between Rome and Carthage. Horace admits that he could not understand the old Salian poems; and he hints that no one else could. Quintilian says that the Salian priests themselves could hardly understand their sacred hymns.

As soon as the literary language of Rome became classical and unchangeable, the first start was made in the future of those Romance dialects which even at the time of Dante are still called vulgar or popular. A great deal, no doubt, of the corruption of those modern dialects is due to the fact that in the forms in which we knew them after the eighth century, they were really Neo-Latin dialects as adopted by the Teutonic barbarians; full, not only of Teutonic words, but of Teutonic idioms, phrases and corruptions. French is provincial Latin as spoken by the Franks, a Teutonic race; and to a smaller extent the same barbarising has affected all other Roman dialects. But from the very beginning, the stock with which the Neo Latin dialects started, was not the classical Latin, but the vulgar, local, provincial dialects of the middle the lower and the lowest classes of the Roman empire. Many of the words which give to French and Italian their classical appearance, are really of much later date, and were imported into them by mediæval scholars, lawyers, and divines; thus escaping the rough treatment to which the original vulgar dialects were subjected by the Teutonic conquerors."

which endured to the end of the Tudor dynasty, periods nearly corresponding to the developments of our Gothic architecture. With the Stuarts, *Modern English* commences. Slow as is the growth of a language, its vitality is proportionately tenacious. We can have no better proof than the fact that whilst the vocabulary of the English language is estimated at a number ranging from 40,000 to 50,000 words (M. Thommerel, who has made a careful computation, gives the number as 43,566 words, of which 29,853 come from Classical, and 13,230 from Teutonic sources), we have in Halliwell's Dictionary of Archaic and Provincial Words, upwards of 51,000 words which do not appear in our ordinary dictionaries. Setting apart the considerable number obsolete, and no longer spoken, the colloquial language at this day equals the written one, in spite of the vast number of words the latter has appropriated from its stock, and of an equally large number of provincial words long since extinct and uncatalogued.

Bosworth's Anglo-Saxon Dictionary contains 28,000 words, and the existence of so ample a vocabulary is a decisive proof of the high material and intellectual status of its possessors. The greater part of these have disappeared from our speech;* the weaker perishing under that struggle for existence which applies to the intellectual no less than to the physical world. With them also has perished a probably equal number† of Anglo-Saxon dialectic

* Of the large proportion of Anglo-Saxon words which have become obsolete, Sharon Turner gives some illustration. In three pages of King Alfred's "Orosius," he found 78 words out of 548 had grown obsolete. In three pages of his "Boetius," he found 143 words out of 666 obsolete; and in three pages of his "Bede," 230 out of 969.

† "Sufficient allowance has not been made by many writers on philology, on the great discrepancy in mediæval times between the language of books and that of the field and market. This widely marked difference is visible at the present day in the spoken dialects of Northern France. Besides its numerous local dialects, Anglo-Saxon had its general colloquial forms, differing widely from the written tongue. Our Anglo-Saxon English is derived probably not so much from that written Anglo-Saxon which has come down to us, as from a spoken tongue, which, beyond what has been incorporated in our literature, and the fragments which still linger in the dialectic speech of our rural districts, has utterly perished."—*Marsh's Origin and History of the English Language*.

Dr. Latham writes in the prefatory remarks to his New Dictionary of the English Language:—"The older form of many of our words is not known in Anglo-Saxon, but is preserved in some one of its congeners. This implies that the Anglo-Saxon literature, as it has come down to us, fails to give an adequate representation of the language, and such, along with that of many competent authorities, but against the doctrine of others, is the Editor's deliberate opinion on a point upon which there is but little unanimity. It is certain, however, that the compositions which have come down to us are by no means conspicuous for either their bulk, or the variety of subjects with which they deal. Of the poetry the proportion is large; but its language is pre-eminently artificial, and farther removed from that of common life than the poetic dialect of any other European nation, with the exception of the Icelandic. * * * It is clear that there must be many words in English which, though really of Anglo-Saxon origin, cannot at present be traced to that language.

and colloquial words, which although current in the mouths of the people, found no place in the scanty literature which has come down to us. Whence then arose that copious vocabulary of our provincial speech which the pious labours of modern archæologists has gathered up? From the perpetual undergrowth of our rural dialects, which, from the very conditions of their existence were—whilst quickened into a jungle-like growth of rank luxuriance,—at the same time subject to a perpetual law of change and decay.* Purely colloquial and traditional; aided by no printed or written literature; no recognised spelling even to fix and stereotype them, they were exposed to a constant variation of pronunciation, and to an equally constant change of meaning. How great and rapidly progressive these might prove may be realised if we consider the extent of the chasm which already separates us in manner and tone of thought from our ancestors of but a single century back. We regard many of their sports as brutal; their manners profligate; and their language as coarse; and much of this last we have discarded accordingly. A spade is no longer called a spade. For its ever multiplying and varying conventionalities, 'society' daily introduces a swarm of periphrastic and intentionally indirect utterances, and the vigour of language is either pared down, or diluted into unmeaning nothings, and its expression painted on the mental retina by neutral tints

* "There were many more names for man, as there were many names for all things in ancient languages. Any feature that struck the observing mind as peculiarly characteristic, could be made to furnish a new name. The sun might be called the bright, the warm, the golden, the preserver, the destroyer, &c. Hence that superabundance of synonyms in ancient dialects, and hence that *struggle for life* carried on among these words, which led to the destruction of the less strong, the less happy, the less fertile words, and ended in the triumph of one as the recognised and proper name for every object in every language. On a very small scale, this process of *natural selection*, or as it would better be called *elimination*, may still be watched, even in modern languages, such as French and English. What it was at the first burst of dialects, we can only gather from such isolated cases as when Von Hanmer counts 5,744 words relating to the camel."—*Max Müller*.

"It is said that in Arabic there are 500 names for the lion, 200 for the serpent, more than 80 for honey, 400 for sorrow, and (what is quite incredible, unless every periphrasis be counted a name,) no less than 1000 for a sword."—*Farrar's Origin of Language*.

"The Icelandic prose Edda, or Art of Poetry, enumerates more than a hundred names for the sword, and a large number for the ship, and for other objects conspicuous in Northern life. * * * *

The power of substituting a hundred epithets for the proper name of the object to which they are applied, is not a proof of the copiousness of a language, even while the etymology of the epithets is remembered, and while they are consequently descriptive or suggestive; but when their origin is forgotten, and they become synonyms, they are hindrances rather than helps, and even in poetical diction are little better than tinsel."—*Marsh*.

+ It is manifest that all new affected modes of speech, whether borrowed from the court, the town, or the theatre, are the first perishing parts in any language; and, as I could prove by many hundred instances, have been so in ours."—*Swift*.

blending into '*nuances*' of indefinable gradation. So continually are words acquiring new shades of meaning, that quotations of an old author's words often involve gross anachronisms, conveying to the minds of later generations meanings altogether different to those intended by the writer and understood by his contemporaries. In the chronological examples, which give a special value to Richardson's Dictionary, we have striking evidence of the strange mutations in meaning which many of our standard words have undergone; of that silent, spontaneous, and unconscious, but ceaseless development which all living languages must of necessity undergo if they are to faithfully reflect the advance* or retrogression in civilization of their utterers;† but, compared with these, most

* 'Nothing more tends to keep a man in mental degradation than the poverty of his language. You cannot impart to him more than the words which he understands, either now contain, or can be made intelligibly to him to contain: language acting as the limit and restraint of thought.

With the advance of a people's material well-being, its moral and intellectual growth is usually found to keep pace, and a multitude of higher wants, refining influences, and new mental associations are created. All these require the aid of words and definitions to define and fix them; for ideas, conceptions and trains of thought are apt to slip from the mental grasp, unless their names have been driven like nails into the memory.'—*Archbp. Trench*.

'Language is often called an instrument of thought, but it is also the nutriment of thought; or rather it is the atmosphere in which thought lives; a medium essential to the activity of our speculative powers, although invisible and imperceptible in its operation. * * * The most familiar words and phrases are connected by imperceptible ties with the reasonings and discoveries of former men and distant times.'—*Whewell*.

+ "Every part of nature, whether mineral, plant, or animal, is the same in kind from the beginning to the end of its existence, whereas, few languages could be recognised as the same after a lapse of but a thousand years. The language of Alfred is so different from the English of the present day, that we have to study it in the same manner as we study Greek and Latin. Historical changes of language may be more or less rapid, but they take place at all times and in all countries. They have reduced the rich and powerful idiom of the poets of the Veda to the meagre and impure jargon of the modern Sepoy; they have transformed the language of Virgil into that of Dante; the language of Ulfilas into that of Charlemagne; the language of Charlemagne into that of Goethe. * * * It has been found that among the wild and illiterate tribes of Siberia, Africa and Siam, two or three generations are sufficient to change the whole aspect of their dialects. The language of highly civilised nations becomes, on the contrary, more and more stationary, and sometimes seem almost to lose their power of change. Where there is a classical literature, and where its language has spread to every town and village, it seems almost impossible that any further changes should take place. Nevertheless, the language of Rome, for so many centuries the queen of the whole civilised world, was deposed by the modern Romance dialects, and the ancient Greek was supplanted in the end by the modern Romance. And though the art of printing, and the wide diffusion of Bibles and Prayer Books, and newspapers have acted as still more powerful barriers to arrest the constant flow of human speech, we may see that the language of the authorised version of the Bible, though perfectly intelligible, is no longer the spoken language of England."—*Max Müller*.

Professor Craik, in his *History of the English Language*, argues that it was the overthrow of the Western Roman Empire and of Western civiliza-

of our dialectic words were but as straws floating upon the stream, at the mercy of every village schoolmaster and rustic wit. The existence of a national literature is of itself alone inadequate to the reduction of dialects to an uniform standard.* An educated people to profit by it is indispensable, a class in England hitherto in a large minority.† To the universal diffusion of education in the United States, the absence of local dialects is ascribed by its philologists. Our English speech is at this moment undergoing the later phases leading to unity. It has passed through the primary stage of a confused simultaneous existence of numerous dialectic varieties,‡ and from the secondary stage, that of an

tion, which occasioned the extinction of the old grammatical Latin as a living language, the conquest of the Byzantine Empire by the Turks, bringing the old Greek, in like manner, to a similar end; and so, he adds, did the Norman Conquest overthrow the old grammatical English of the Anglo-Saxon era.

* "Germany had a written language and literature earlier than our composite English; its famous epic of the Nibelungen Lied dating *circa*, A.D. 1200. Now, it is true of orthography and grammar, as of literary form, that there is no unity until great authors arise and become recognised as standards of authority. It is equally true that the tendency of such standard writings is to harmonise the discordances of dialectic languages; and yet, though we have sufficient evidence that for many centuries dialects have been dying out, and that German has been spoken and written with increasing uniformity, in spite of all this, the collection of German dialects spoken at the present day, which has been brought together by Firmenich, includes some hundreds; and Stalder has given us the parable of the Prodigal Son in forty-two German, and twenty-seven Romance patois employed in Switzerland alone. These numbers are, of course, greatly exaggerated by the propensity of dialect collectors to give phonographic spellings of the colloquial pronunciations of words in every day use, which are really the same everywhere, and which have simply shades of difference no greater than will be found in the articulation of any two members of the same family. Hence much of this alleged diversity of dialect is imaginary."—*Marsh*.

† To this unlettered condition of the peasantry, and to the want of facilities of local communication, it is owing that at the present day, by large numbers Welsh is spoken in Wales, Irish in Ireland, Gaelic in Scotland, and Manx in the Isle of Man.

‡ 'About twenty of the Italian dialects have been reduced to writing and made known by the press. Champollion Figeac reckons the most distinguishable dialects of France as fourteen. The number of modern Greek dialects is carried by some as high as seventy. Pliny states that in Colchis there were more than three hundred tribes speaking different dialects, and that the Romans in order to carry on any intercourse with the natives, had to employ one hundred and thirty interpreters.

In modern times, missionaries to savage tribes have been seldom able to acquire more than one out of many dialects; and this, when mastered, reduced to writing, and made the medium of civilising intercourse, has become supreme, and left the rest behind as barbarous jargons.

We read of missionaries in Central America compiling with great care the dictionary of the language of savage tribes, embodying every word they could lay hold of. Returning, after an absence of ten years, they have found their labour had become antiquated and useless, so many old words had disappeared, and new ones risen to the surface.'

"Such," observes *Max Müller*, "is the life of language in a state of

isolated and independent existence of dialects, it is now emerging to that fusion of them which produces uniformity.

If we examine a collection of Archaic and Provincial words, we shall find them largely made up of those monosyllabic words which characterise the Anglo-Saxon and other Northern languages, and of indigenous compound adjectives and substantives, the facility of forming which is part of our Teutonic lingual inheritance; but these, concurrent with the introduction of the Latin element, we seem to have lost the art of splicing together. Besides a host of words of Keltic, Saxon, Frisic and Norse descent, are a number of Norman words and of mediæval Latin corruptions, which after finding no rest for the soles of their feet in our dictionaries, have been gleaned up in local glossaries. Of these last, many relate to the rites, ceremonies, and observances of the Romish church, and the hunting sports and warlike pastimes of our Norman rulers. Of the Anglo-Saxon, and larger portion, many illustrate their wassail, feasting and good fellowship, many are flouting epithets on physical defects, and personal failings and vices, and mark that propensity for nicknames which exists in all primitive communities, accompanied by that unconscious felicity of application, which—inherent in the people, but absent in scholars and philosophers—forms one of the strange mysteries of language. Great numbers relate to the daily operations of husbandry, the diversities of soil, variations of weather, popular prejudices and superstitions; the congratulations and gibes of wakes, merry-makings, harvest homes, rustic games, and jocular sports; the popular names of flowers, herbs and simples, and the young of birds and beasts; the technical terms of common handicrafts; local names of food, clothing, dwellings, furniture; in short, all that has to do with the social habits, modes of thought, and the environments of daily life in our village homes.*

nature, before the bit and bridle of literature has been thrown over its neck. Before there is a national language, there have always been hundreds of dialects in districts, towns, villages, clans, and families."

A noticeable statement, as conflicting with that of an universally multiplying tendency of dialects in unlettered countries, was made by *Sir R. Murchison*, in the course of a discussion at the Ethnological Society, Jan. 26, 1864. His own written words are—"I instanced the striking contrast between Russia and England proper; both countries being flat, or undulating in outline. In the former, the very same dialect, even to exact pronunciation, prevails, from the West of St. Petersburg, across all Northern Russia to the easternmost shores of Siberia—a distance of nearly 4,400 miles. In England proper, on the contrary, in a length of 400 miles only, there are many dialects," due to its former conquest by various nations, and the existence for a long time of various sub-kingdoms. "In Russia and Siberia, where the peasant travels in winter hundreds of versts in his sledge to market, and where one dominant race of White Russians has occupied the whole territory in question, the uniformity of dialect is as easily explained, as is the diversity in England."

* A most prolific multiplier of our dialectic words has been that principle of language known as *onomatopæia*, the formation of words by imitative sounds

A digest of the gatherings of modern glossarists has shown how much of our provincial dialect is universally diffused and common

of the objects it is intended to characterise. Mr. Wedgewood, the able exponent of this theory as originating a considerable part of the vocabulary of every people, has been treated with undue asperity by M. Müller, in his strenuous advocacy of an almost entire derivation of language "from a small number of monosyllabic 'roots' (the cores of groups of related words, skeletons of articulated sound,) possessing the inherent power of throwing out with advancing thought new roots to an extent practically unlimited." To the question what primal motive power called into existence the 400 or 500 roots which form the constituent elements in different families of language, M. Müller answers—By an instinct of man in his primitive and perfect state, as irresistible as any other instinct; a divinely given inherent percussive faculty; an inward vibration and ring responding by vocal expressions to man's outward sensations." M. Müller proceeds—"So far as language is the production of that instinct, it belongs to the realm of nature. Man loses his instincts as he ceases to want them. His senses become fainter, when, as in the case of scent they become useless. Thus the creative faculty which gave to each conception as it thrilled for the first time through the brain a phonetic expression, became extinct when its object was fulfilled. The number of these phonetic types must have been almost infinite in the beginning, and it was only through the same process of *natural elimination* which we observed in the early history of words, that clusters of roots more or less synonymous were gradually reduced to one definite type. We must suppose that the first settlement of the radical elements of language was preceded by a period of unrestrained growth, the spring of speech—to be followed by many an autumn."

This theory M. Müller states was propounded years ago by Professor Heyse of Berlin. Long before, however, Leibnitz had beautifully pictured the soul of the first man as a concentric mirror of nature, in the midst of whose works he lived.

An instinct implanted in man to fulfil a function so important as that of supplying—to use the happy simile of Carlyle—"the flesh-garment of thought"—a garment which has been subject to incessant wear and tear, renewal and decay, change of fashion and form—a function whose operation constitutes the boundary line between man and the lower creation, would seem to belong to his divine and imperishable part. Like our other instincts, so long as it is satisfied, it may remain dormant. 'The faculty 'must have existed in man,' declares M. Müller, 'because its effects continue to exist.' It does not also follow that it must have ceased to exist. If the number of phonetic types produced in the origin of language was infinite, without stint or limit to the strict necessities of the emergency, has not a similar active evoking of the same instinct been witnessed, producing the same results in later ages in the vigorous youth of the world's great races.

It may be granted that words imitative of sounds have not the vital propagating force of "roots," that they may be echoes from the chambers of the memory, rather than percussive vibrations of man's inner consciousness, but they are a class of words we should naturally expect to find abundant among primitive and unlettered races. They are, moreover, words of a kind not likely to be easily superseded by other synonymies, whatever the purity of their 'root' lineage. Their derivations lie on the surface, and are obvious to the meanest capacity, whilst your roots lie often deep underground, and take 'a mort of digging up.' M. Müller compares these words to artificial flowers without a root. In such East Anglian words as *quackle*, *krinkle*, *rumple*, *slammaken*, *slappy*, *slobber*, *snuggle*, sound answers to the sense. Still more palpable onomatopœias are *bang*, *crack*, *purr*, *whizz*, *hum*, *pee-wit*, *cuckoo*, *click*, *cluck*, *twitter*, *coo*, *caw*, *bark*, *yelp*, *snarl*, *growl*, *grunt*, *bleat*, *mew*, *snap*, *smack*, *thwack*. These words, it is safe to predict, will last as long as the language—(can any better be found to replace them?)—and no amount of inundation is likely to submerge them. Attempts have been made, but e.g. *cracking* is not very likely to succumb to *strepitation*, or *barking* to *latration*.

to every part of England, and that the bulk of this when winnowed of corruptions and contractions of our current speech, shrinks considerably. The most fertile multiplier of local words and phrases is the nomenclature of agricultural operations. Nor is this to be wondered at, when the vast diversity of clime, situation, and soil is considered, grazing, dairy, arable, moor, fen, flat, marsh, fell, upland, clayey, gravelly, peaty, lean, fat, stubborn, hot, cold, hungry, sterile. Each and all of these conditions have called into existence dialectic phrases peculiar to themselves.* Of these almost every county has a separate coinage of its own terms of husbandry almost unintelligible beyond its own borders;† the very exuberance of these unwritten words tending to make them unintelligible even to neighbours but little remote.

Before printing had set up a common standard of language of universal currency,‡ the requirements of every centre of fairs, markets, and other gatherings, would necessitate for mutual communication, the coinage of many words and phrases. The same want of a convenient circulating medium in specie, led formerly to the frequent issue of local coins and tokens. Of this verbal coinage, unlike its more durable counterfeits, immense numbers have become extinct. We have reason to believe that multitudes have never found their way into print, and gone down to the 'eternal silences.' An universal burden of lament is raised by every collector of provincialisms over the large number of archaic words which he meets with or hears of from the gaffers and greybeards, words once current in the hamlet and by the fireside, but which are now empty symbols, conveying no meaning to the living generation. 'Names and words,' exclaims Robertson,

* We can hardly form an idea of the unbounded resources of dialects. When literary languages have stereotyped one general term, their dialects will supply fifty, though each with its own special shade of meaning. These are not local and provincial, but also class dialects, such as those of shepherds, sportsmen, soldiers and farmers.—*Müller*.

† "The limited locality of many rustic words is worthy of remark; many archaisms retained in one parish, are unknown at the distance of a few miles. A farmer residing on the borders of Warwickshire, removed to the Leicestershire side of the county, not more than eight miles distant, and found many of the agricultural terms quite new to him; while some of those he had always been accustomed to were never used, and scarcely understood: and a labourer who resided fourteen miles west of Northampton, went seventeen miles east to see his relations, and said he could not understand them."—*Baker's Glossary of Northamptonshire*.

‡ Until the numerous petty states and communities of the middle ages were absorbed in the larger, and until a national literature had been created, and a fixity and universality given to linguistic forms by the discovery of printing, local differences of speech were continually augmenting. This discovery, and increased facilities of intercourse have served as a corrective to bring back all deviations to normal forms. In England, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, from the absence of a national literature, there was probably more diversity of dialect than exists in any European nation of equal numbers at the present day.—*Marsh*.

'soon lose their meaning. In the process of years and centuries the meaning dies off them, like the sunlight from the hills. The hills are there—the colour is gone.'

To the women of our rural districts we owe the preservation of many of our most precious literary archaisms.* From their lips have been taken down the finest examples of our ballad poetry; those old wives' budgets crammed with ghosts and witches, and that folk lore, which by turns soothed their children into slumber, or awed them into wondering silence. As an intellectual diet, though rude and scanty, its weird and marvellous legends sufficed to still the cravings of imagination; and, oft-repeated, sank deep into the reciters' memories; whilst the jocular wit of their husbands; the ale-house ditties; the lyrics of the harvest-home and sheep-shearing; the jests, the byewords, and the humorous traditions of many a country side, have perished with the village Yorics. To their nimble and fluent tongues we doubtless owe, moreover, the wonderful corruptions which some of the Latin ingredients of our written English (notably the legal, judicial, clerical and medical) have undergone in their colloquial transition from mouth to mouth.† Many words issued bright and clear from the mintage of scholars, must have come back to their perplexed parents so clipt, defaced and battered with "phonetic abrasion," as to be scarce identifiable. Another large class, those modern words of French importation, at once the shibboleths and the slang of fashionable "society;" and the vocabularies of its milliners, coiffeurs, cooks and *petit maitres*, travelling downwards through the butler's pantry, the utterances of the ladies'-maid,—eagerly caught up and misappropriated by a shallow brood of

* "For my part, when I hear my mother-in-law Lœlia (for it is easier for women to keep the purity of antiquity, because by keeping less company than men, they always stick to what they first learned.), I think that I am conversing with *Plautus* or *Nævius*; so simple, so unaffected in her tone, that she appears quite void of all ostentation or affectation. Thence, I conclude that her father spoke in the same manner; that he again spoke in the same manner with his forefathers."—*Cicero*.

"Before all things let the talk of the nurses be free from erroneous pronunciation."—*Quintilian*.

"Not the least the women, who particularly preserved the ancient tongue."—*Plato's Cratylus*.

† To place words of this kind into the mouths of country bumpkins was a stock recipe with the play and farce writers of the last century.

Sir Thomas Browne has been credited with having first called the attention of scholars to our dialects. Three centuries, however, earlier, Chaucer had put in the mouths of his characters from Craven and East Anglia, dialectic words of those localities. Ben Jonson had slightly employed them. In 1634, Heywood had given in his *Lancashire Witches*, what passed for the dialect of the county. In 1682, *Thomas Shadwell*, born in Norfolk in 1640, brought out on the stage his comedy of the *Lancashire Witches*, in which *Clod* and *Thomas o Georges* discourse in a jumble of the Cheshire and Lancashire dialects. In his *Squire of Alsatia*, Shadwell makes considerable use of the Thieves' slang of his age.

aping imitators amongst the middle classes, have developed, in their gradual progress inland, into a jargon by the side of which our rustic dog-latin is an honest, harmless and unsophisticated compound.*

Despite all the neglect, adulteration, and decay to which our provincial speech has been abandoned, it has come down to us an abundant reservoir from whence later generations will replenish and re-invigorate our English tongue. Whenever that great want shall have been supplied—of a complete English dialectic gradus—the raciness, vigour, and copiousness of that speech will be understood. For many of the neglected words of our Gothic language, no less than for our Gothic architecture, a renaissance is in store. That our rustic idioms contain a living fibre for which no Latinised English can furnish equivalents, has been conclusively shown. Strip the dialect from the poetry of Burns, the pathetic idylls of Barnes, the songs of ‘canny Cummerlan’, from *Adam Bede*, and *Mary Barton*, and what remains will be soulless skeletons.† Those dialects are dearer to us than we think. In them, our fathers found an utterance for their loves, griefs, laughter, anger, tears. To many of us their children ‘in populous cities pent,’ the rustic burr, the old world phrase, chance heard, brings up a rush of recollections of happy boyish days never more to be lived again, on broad moorland heights, in deep sequestered dales.

“And oh! ye fountains, meadows, hills, and groves,
Think not of any severing of our loves!
Yet in my heart of hearts I feel your might.”

Large as is the proportion of Anglo-Saxon which has been superseded by the continual incorporation of newer elements, sufficient has remained to set its ineffaceable impress upon the English language. The names of all those common and familiar

* *Socrates*,—“But do you not know, blessed man, that the names first formed are now overlaid by those desirous of travestying them in a skilled style; and who, for the sake of an elegant pronunciation, add and take away letters, and twist them in every way, partly for ornament and partly through time?”—*Plato's Cratylus*.

“No expression can become a vulgarism which has not a broad foundation. The language of the vulgar hath its source in physics: in known, comprehended and operative things: the language of those who are just above the vulgar is less pure, as flowing from what they do not in general comprehend. Hence the profusion of broken and ill-assorted metaphors which we find in the conversation of almost all who stand in the intermediate space between the lettered and the lowest.”—*Walter Savage Landor*.

† General Paoli remarked to Dr. Johnson that languages were formed on the particular notions and manners of a people, without knowing which, we cannot know the language. We may know the direct signification of single words, but by these no beauty of expression; no sally of genius; no root is conveyed to the mind. All this must be by allusion to other ideas. “Sir,” said Dr. Johnson, “you talk of language as if you had never done anything else but study it, instead of governing a nation.”—*Boswell's Johnson*.

objects of our daily life, which appeal to the outward senses; the products of the animal and vegetable kingdom; all the movements of the body and the workings of the mind, its emotions, passions, hopes, fears; the ties of home and kindred; the never forgotten utterances of childhood; the practical pursuits which environ our daily existence; the speech of the market, the shop, the farm, the street, the fireside; the greetings, glad or sorrowful, of weddings and burials. In its homely phrases the proverbs of the people are clad. The strong veins of humour and satire, which underlie the surface of our Anglo-Saxon character, find their most trenchant utterances in native idioms. Almost all the terms of anger, hearty contempt, or scathing scorn, are drawn from the same well-stored armoury.*

'Language,' writes Max Müller, 'though mixed in their dictionaries can never be mixed in their grammar. In the English dictionary the student of the science of language can detect by his own tests, Celtic, Norman, Greek, and Latin ingredients, but not a single drop of foreign blood has entered into the organic system of the English language. The grammar, the blood and soul of the language is as pure and unmixed in English as spoken in the British Isles, as it was when spoken on the shores of the German Ocean by the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes of the continent.†

* Our national pugnacity is shown in the very considerable space its vocabulary takes up in provincial glossaries. *Major Moor*, in the appendix to his *Suffolk Words*, has brought together the local terms "denoting a blow, to beat, or a beating." We quote them, with the remark that with hardly an exception, they are all monosyllabic, and either interjectional or onomatopœias.

"Aint—Baffle, baste, buffle, bob, bum-brush, bump—Clap, click, clink, clip, clout, clunch, crack—Dab, dash, ding, dint, douse, dunsh, dunt—Fan, flack, flick, frap—Hide—Jerk, julk—Knap, kulp—Lace, lanner, lah on, larrup, latha, lick, line, lump—Maul—Pah, pat, peg, pelt, pepper, poke, poonch, poult, pounce, plump, pummel—Racket, rib-roast—Salt-eel, siserara, skelp, smash, sneezer, sowse, spank, squaj, strop, sussack, swack, swash, sweat, swinge, swirl, switch—Thrip, thrum, thwack, trim, trounce—Vlick—Wallop, wale, wap, wash, weal, welt, whack, whang, wherret, wipe—Yerk—and divers others no doubt which have escaped me—in addition to the common threatening verbs active of bang, box, cuff, dress, lash, slap, smack, thrash, thump, &c., &c., everywhere understood."

† Our Ang.-Sax. includes all the words of primary necessity and frequent recurrence. It is the basis of the language, furnishing all its joints; its whole articulation; its sinews and its ligaments. All the smaller words which knit together and bind the larger into sentences. "When the English language was inundated by a vast influx of French words, few, if any French forms were received into its grammar, but the Saxon forms soon dropped away, because they did not suit the new roots; and the genius of the language, from having to deal with the newly imported words in a rude state, was induced to neglect the inflections of the native ones. This led to the introduction of the *s* as the universal termination of all plural nouns; which agreed with the usage of the French language, and was not alien from that of the Saxon.—*Grimm*.

All our *classes* of words, which it is the office of grammar to investigate, are derived from Anglo-Saxon. What few inflections we have, are all Anglo-Saxon. The genitive; the plurals of nouns; the adjective terminations of comparative and superlative; the inflections of pronouns, of the second and

Whilst the Anglo-Saxon was succumbing, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, under the unceasing importation of new and foreign elements, the English language during this period of transition, containing in solution a multiplicity of words for the same objects, floating about in colloquial speech, would attain its maximum of unsettlement and confusion, continuing until a lengthened filtration, carried on by a succession of writers, had reduced the language to a rough standard of uniformity. Bede, in the eight century, speaks of five languages then current in Britain,—the ecclesiastical Latin of the church and of literature, English, British, Scotch, and Pictish. By the thirteenth century the classical Latin had given way to the Romance Latin, the *Lingua Rustica* of France. The host of Norman or French words which had come in with the Conquest, and formed the fashionable speech of the court and upper classes, had not however penetrated deeply into the heart of the kingdom or its northern districts. Our earliest writers on language were fully aware of the great dialectic differences existing throughout the kingdom. In the *Polychronicon* of Ralph Higden,* translated by John de Trevisa, in 1387, (10, Rich. II.) a vivid picture is given of the conflicting influences at work:—

As it is knowe how meny manner Peple beeth in this Lond. There beeth also so many divers longages and tonges. Notheles Walsche men and Scotts that beeth nought medled with other nations, holdeth wel nyh hir firste longage

third persons present and imperfect of verbs; their preterites and participles; and the most frequent termination (*ly*) of adverbs, are all Anglo-Saxon. So are all the most common and important parts of speech, the articles, definitions, adjectives, and our pronouns, irregular verbs, prepositions and conjunctions. —*Edinburgh Review*.

* It is certain, writes Garnett, that there were in Higden's time, and probably long before, five distinctly marked dialects, which may be classed as follows:—1.—*Southern*, or *Standard English*, which, in the fourteenth century was, perhaps, best spoken in Kent and Surrey, by the body of the inhabitants. 2.—*Western English*, of which traces may be found from Hampshire to Devonshire, and Northward as far as the Avon. 3.—*Mercian*, vestiges of which appear in Shropshire, Staffordshire, and South and West Derbyshire, becoming distinctly marked in Cheshire, and still more so in South Lancashire. 4.—*Anglian*, of which there are three sub-divisions—the East Anglian of Norfolk and Suffolk; the Middle Anglian of Lincolnshire, Notts., and East Derbyshire; and the North Anglian of the West Riding of Yorkshire, spoken most purely in Craven. 5.—*Northumbrian*. This is but a geographical approximation, for in this, and all countries, dialects are apt to get out of bounds and mix with their neighbours.

Sir F. Madden, commenting on this, writes to Mr. Garnett:—"The only MS. I recollect, which presents us with an autograph specimen of a dialect at a certain period, is that of the Kentish speech written by Dan. Archbold of Northgate, Canterbury, in 1320, and preserved among the Arundel MSS. This exhibits all the peculiarities of the East Somersetshire dialect; when, therefore, you state that the standard English was best spoken in the 14th century by the body of inhabitants in Kent and Surrey, you must confine your remark to the upper classes of the laity and clergy." A part of this specimen is given in Halliwell's Dict., p. xxi.

and speche; but yif the Scottes that were sometime confederat, and woned with the Pictes drawe some what after hir speche; but the Flemynges that woneth in the West side of Wales, haveth left her strange speche and speketh Saxonliche now. Also, Englishe men they had from the bygynnyng thre maner speche, Northerne, Sowtherne and Middel speche in the Middel of the Londe as they come of thre manner Peple of Germania. Notheles by comyxtion and mellynge first with Danes and afterward with Normans, in meny the contrary Lantage is apayred, (perverted) and som useth strong wlafteryng chiteryng hartynge and gartinge grisbayting, this apayring of the burthe of the tunge is bycause of tweie thynges, oon is for por children in scole agenst the usage and maner of all other nations haeth compelled for to leve hire owne Lantage, and for to construe his lessons and here thynges in Frenche, and so they haveth sethe Normans come first into Engeland.* Also gentilmen children beeth taught to speke Frensche from the tyme that they beeth rokked in here cradel, and cunneth speke and play with a childes broche, and uplondyshe men wil likne hym self to gentilmen and fondeth with græt besynesse for to speke Frensche for to be told of. * * * *

Also of the foresaide Saxon tonge that is deled (divided) a-thre, and is abide scarceliche with few uplondysche men is græt wonder. For men of the Est with men of the West is, as it were, under the same partie of hevene acordeth more in sounyng of speche than men of the North with men of the South. Therefore it is that Mercii that boeth men of myddel Engeland, as it were parteners of the endes, understondeth bettre the sede langes, Northerne and Southerne, than Northerne and Southerne understondeth either other. All the lantage of the Northumbers and specialliche at York is so scharp, slitting and frotynge and unschape, that we Southerne men may not that lantage unnethe understonde. I trow that that is bycause that they boeth nyh to strange men and nations, that speketh strongliche, and also bycause that the Kinges of Engeland woneth alwey fer from that cuntrey."

The history of the English language, from the time of Chaucer to our own day, is so clearly traceable in its literature, as to render any notice here superfluous. Its gains and losses, the changes which its structure and spelling have undergone, are impressively told in the admirable manuals of Archbishop Trench. We propose to dwell very briefly on the part taken in these changes by East Anglian writers, and to notice the incidental causes which led to the bulk of our dialects being omitted from modern dictionaries, an exclusion which has aided in their limitation and gradual extinction.

The archaic character of much of East Anglian speech has been ascribed to the fact that it has produced no pre-eminent writers to embalm its provincialisms in their pages, emulating that kindly office which Shakspeare has performed for the Mid-Anglian dialect. This is undoubtedly true, but, to compensate for this, probably no other part of England has a more continuous body of prose literature faithfully reflecting the successive influences to which the language has been exposed. Some of the chief of these may be briefly noticed—

The *Promptorium Parvulorum*, written by a monk of Lynn, circa

* About the middle of the 14th century, the practice of construing Latin only through French was generally discontinued by the teachers of youth. In 1362, a statute was passed, by which it was decreed that all pleadings in courts of justice should be conducted in English; and that the public records should be kept in the native language. Wycliffe's was the earliest translation of the Bible into a modern language.

1440, and intended as an English-Latin Lexicon for the use of clerics, is the earliest and most important vocabulary of English that has come down to us. It was frequently reprinted in the century after its compilation; but by far the most valuable edition is the one in course of publication by the Camden Society, edited by Mr. Albert Way. The author excuses himself for the dialectical peculiarities of his work, as written in the vernacular of East Anglia, with which alone he was familiar. "Comitatus tamen Norfolkchie loquendi solum sum secutus, quem solum ab infancia didici, et solotenus plenius, perfectiusque cognovi."* He concludes his preface, "explicit preambulum in libellum predictum, secundum vulgarem modum loquendi Orientalium Anglorum." The *Promptorium* is thus, though including many words of Norman-French, to a considerable extent a glossary of the East Anglian dialect as it existed in the fifteenth century; and probably no other English dialect possesses materials of equal value for its investigation. Mr. Way has justly assumed that a comparison of it with the modern dialect of East Anglia was desirable, and his collation of it with the glossaries of Forby and Moor, reveals the antiquity of a considerable portion of still existing provincialisms.

About the same date, another monk of Lynn, John Capgrave, Prior of the Friar Hermits of Lynn, and Provincial of the Order in England, a distinguished scholar and writer of his day, was busily engaged in producing a voluminous series of Biblical Commentaries and Historical Chronicles.† Most of them were written in Latin; one or two, however, appeared in English;

* That Norfolk had a distinctive dialect, differing from that of its neighbours, is shown by the above. That its accent was not an unpleasant one may be fairly deduced from the *Chronicle of Jocelyn de Brakelonde*. Describing the personal traits of his hero, the Abbot Samson, of the Abbey of Bury St. Edmunds, his gifts of oratory are extolled:—"Homo erat eloquens Gallice et Latine, magis ratione dicendorum quam ornatus verborum innitens, Scripturam Anglice scriptam legere novit elegantissime, et Anglice sermocinare solebat populo, sed secundum linguam Norfolkchie ubi natus et nutritus erat, unde et pulpitem jussit fieri in ecclesiâ, et ad utilitatem audiencium et ad decorem ecclesie."

Other characteristic Norfolk traits are indicated in the same gossiping chronicler's narrative. No sooner was discreet subsacrist Samson raised to the Abbacy than he promptly set to work to reform the abuses which had grown up in his predecessor's time, whereupon some of the brethren who before had wished for his promotion, "aperte et occulte depravaverunt, et eum hominem iracundum, non socialem, pallenerium et barratorem de Norfolk, etiam in audientiâ multorum publice nominaverunt."

That the Norman French accent had not very successfully invaded the seclusion of Norfolk, may be conjectured from a passage in *Piers Ploughman's Vision*, A.D. 1362—

"And I kan no Frensche in faith
But of the furthest ende of Northfolk."

+ No other part of England can show such a series of Ecclesiastical chroniclers and historians as those who flourished in the noble monasteries of East Anglia, at Croyland, Bury, Ely, Lynn, St. Benet Holme, &c. Amongst them occur

the chief being his *Chronicle of England*, dedicated to Edward IV., and completed just before the author's death in 1464. The work forms the first of that important series of *Chronicles and Memorials*, now publishing by authority of the Treasury, under the direction of the Master of the Rolls. It has been very carefully edited by a Norfolk antiquary, the Rev. F. C. Hingeston. The glossary he has appended reveals the existence in Capgrave's chronicle of several hundred local provincialisms still current; and the orthography, differing in many points from our standard English, corresponds with that still in use along the East Coast.

East Anglian Literature possesses still another important literary relic of that age — the *Paston Letters*, commencing A.D. 1434, and extending over the reigns of five sovereigns. Apart from their antiquarian value they possess a high literary and philological interest, as specimens of colloquial English, the production of the most lettered class of that age. They betray no marks of the artificial and stilted style which became the fashion of the succeeding century, and from which we have but lately disencumbered ourselves. They are purely colloquial; careless of ornament—brief, rapid utterances, clad in plain, often uncouth phraseology. A number of Norfolk provincialisms occur in them, the chief of them noted in our glossary.

The advent of Chaucer has been compared to a genial day in an inclement English spring, a deceptive harbinger of sunshine, bloom, and verdure. In the two centuries which intervened before

‘The spacious times of great Elizabeth;’

two poets only emerge from the level mass of mediocrity. *John Lydgate*, monk of Bury, 1430, master of all the literary accomplishments of his era, an author of great fertility, now sunning his genius, as did Chaucer, in the rays of Dante and Boccaccio, now versifying the Life and History of his patron Saint, King Edmund, his muse excelling in clearness of diction, picturesque and imaginative force, and musical flow. The chief poet of the reigns of Henry VI and Edward IV, he was succeeded by his disciple, *Stephen Hawes*, a native of Suffolk, groom of Henry the Seventh's chamber, the only writer of that reign deserving the name of poet; his *Temple of Glasseye* and his *Passeye of Pleasure*, 1506, are performances of considerable romantic and allegoric power.

Contemporary with Tusser, whose writings we have already noticed, was *John Skelton*, Rector of Diss, poet laureate in 1489, the names of Thomas of Walsingham, Matthew of Paris, William of Worcester, the chaplain of Falstolfe. John Capgrave, John of Oxnead, Jocelyn of Brakelonde, and Henry of Huntingdon.

Earliest and most enthusiastic of our Bibliomaniacs, was Richard de Bury, A.D. 1287, Tutor, Lord Chancellor, and High Treasurer to Edward III., by accident a statesman, by inclination a scholar and patron of learning, a friend of Petrarch, the rescuer from neglect and destruction, of many of our oldest MSS., the possessor of more books than all the English bishops of his time put together, which he bequeathed to Oxford for the use of poor scholars.

whose rude, forcible rhymes, boldly attacking the mendicants and prelates, reflected the coarse manners and fierce religious animosities of his age. Turning his attention to still higher game, his attacks boldly aimed at the foremost subject of the realm—the great East Anglian Cardinal—brought down upon him *Wolsey's* hostility, and his closing years were passed in the sanctuary of Westminster Abbey. A kindred spirit, whose utterances found their vent in no less intemperate prose, was *Bishop Bale*, voluminous, laborious, but 'foul-mouthed,' born at Covehithe, and brought up in the monastery of the Carmelites, at Norwich. Among the minor poets of that age of East Anglian origin, may be instanced *Nicholas Grimoald*, noticed by Wharton as the second writer of blank verse in England; *Lucas Shepherd*, of Colchester, a Puritan poet of Queen Mary's reign; and about the same period, *John Pullaine*, Archdeacon of Colchester, a versifier of the Old Testament Histories.* *Stephen Gardiner*, Bishop of Winchester, the ablest champion of the Romish Church after *Wolsey's* fall, Lord Chancellor of Queen Mary, was a native of Bury St. Edmunds, and Archdeacon of Norfolk. Of the martyr confessors of the Romish Church in Elizabeth's reign, none more warmly excite our pity for their untimely fate than *Robert Southwell*, member of an ancient Norfolk family, the youthful, courageous, unshrinking Jesuit Father; and a Christian poet, gifted with a muse of fervent piety, of a chasteness, sweetness, and purity of idiom, unsurpassed by any of his contemporaries.

Among the most eminent of East Anglian names, and of the Fathers of our Church, ranks *Matthew Parker*, born at Norwich, 1504, and resident in the district until raised to the See of Canterbury, 1559. Marked out by his learning,* ability, and discretion, as the fittest man of his generation for the arduous task, he was summoned to the control and guidance of the Reformed Church of England, at the most critical stage in its existence, and his fifteen years' primacy fully justified the wisdom of those who made choice of him. To Archbishop Parker, more than perhaps

* *Sternhold*, colleague of Hopkins in the first metrical version of the Psalms, used in the Church of England, was a Suffolk schoolmaster. Amongst the minor poets of the earlier part of the sixteenth century, occur the names of *Thomas Nuce*, rector of Oxburgh and Beccles, translator of Seneca's *Octavia*, published 1566; and *Alexander Nevyle*, Secretary to Archbishop Parker, translator of the *Œdipus*; historian of Kett's Norfolk Insurrection, and writer of a Latin account of Norwich, 1574.

* Parker had become so distinguished at Cambridge for his knowledge of the Scriptures and of the Fathers, that *Wolsey* had already fixed upon him before he was thirty, to be one of the professors in his magnificent foundation of Christ's College, Oxford, an honour which Parker, who had cast in his lot with the Reforming party, declined. He was, perhaps, the earliest promoter of a revival of our Anglo-Saxon literature, by undertaking the publication of a Saxon homily. Parker surrounded himself with able scholars, and instigated the printing of our Monastic Chronicles. He also versified the Psalter, which he had printed, but suppressed, from motives not recorded.

to any other individual member of its communion, our Church owes that wise order, liberality, and comprehensiveness, which have saved her from degenerating into a narrow sect. Under his superintendence that great work, the Bishop's Bible, of 1568, was undertaken and completed. Eminent as a scholar and divine, an encourager of historical literature and theological learning, the career of Parker reflected honour on his high office.

From Italy proceeded the first impulses which quickened into youthful life and vigour our nascent English literature; and to her Poets we owe the bias given to that glorious literary epoch, which begins with Chaucer and ends with Milton. Every great intellectual movement has also its extravagances, and in the Elizabethan Euphuistic writers we have a reflex of the affectations and conceits of Italian genius in its decadence. In the vigorous *Satires* of *Bishop Hall*, whose youth, early manhood, and later years were passed in East Anglia,* the literary vices of his age met with their most trenchant ridicule; and from the pen of *Nashe*, another East Anglian—the wittiest and most formidable prose satirist of his age—came forth the ablest rejoinders. *Nashe* had assisted Marlow in the composition of some of his Dramas, which, despite their great merits, contained an amount of rant and fustian which exposed them to the jibes of his brother playwrights, and furnished the theme for the Third Satire of *Hall*, who denounces his “pot-fury,”—

“Graced with huff-cap terms and thund’ring threats
That his poor hearer’s hair quite upright sets

and his

terms Italionate

Big-sounding sentences and words of state.”

Nashe’s “Christ’s Tears over Jerusalem,” having been also severely handled by his enemies, for its compound English and Italian, in the preface to a later edition of it he proceeds to vindicate “poor deceased Kit Marlowe,” and himself:—

“To the second rancke of reprehenders, that complain of my boystrous compound wordes, and ending my Italionate coynd verbes all in *ize*, thus I reple: That no winde that blowes strong but is boystrous; no speech or wordes of any power or force to confute or perswade, but must be swelling and

* Bishop Joseph Hall, born at Ashby, 1574, educated at Cambridge, where he resided twelve years, rector of Halsted, Suffolk, 1601, Waltham Cross, Essex, 1608, Dean of Worcester, 1616, Bishop of Exeter, 1627, and of Norwich, 1641, died at Heigham, near Norwich, 1658, aged 82. The *Satires* were published 1607 and 1609, and by the instigation of Archbishop Whitgift and Bishop Bancroft, were condemned to the flames by the High Commission Court. Half a century later they were fiercely attacked by Milton. Pope declared them the best poetry and truest satire in the English language. Gray pronounced them full of spirit and poetry, Hall claims in his prologue to be the earliest English satirist; but *George Gascoigne*, an Essex poet, had published, in 1576, his *Steete Glasse*, characterised by Wharton as ‘a shrewd and poignant satire worth notice.’ Bishop Hall is now best known by his *Contemplations* and other devotional writings of his later years.

boystrous. For the compounding of my wordes, therein I imitate rich men, who, having store of white single money together, convert a number of those small little sentes into great peeces of gold, such as double pistoles and portugues. Our English tongue, of all languages, most swarmeth with the single money of monosyllables, which are the onely scandal of it. Bookes written in them, and no other, seeme like shop-keepers boxes, that containe nothing else saue halfe-pence, three-farthings, and two pences. Therefore what did me I, but, having a huge heape of those worthlesse shreds of small English in my *pia maters* purse, to make the royaller shew with them to men's eyes, had them to the compounders immediately, and exchanged them foure into one, and others into more, according to the Greek, French, Spanish, and Italian."

One of the most remarkable quarrels in the annals of literature, was that encounter of wits between the three East Anglians, *Nash*, *Robert Greene*, and *Gabriel Harvey*, which so greatly amused and scandalized their contemporaries. Whilst it lasted, it was a perfect hail of invective; no such vocabulary of abuse exists in the compass of the language. After the untimely death of Greene, it raged on with greater fury, until it was abruptly closed by an order of the Archbishop of Canterbury, 'that all *Nashe's* bookes and *Dr. Harvey's* books be taken wheresoever they may be found, and that none of the said bookes be ever printed hereafter.' The wordy duel had, however, already come to an end, terminating like those wit combats recorded between *Shakspeare* and *Ben Jonson*. Learned, ponderous *Harvey*, whilst slowly bringing to bear his unwieldy ordnance, had been raked, and riddled, and disabled by the nimbler artillery of his enemy, and glad to shear off with no further stomach left for fighting. *Nashe* had the credit also of putting an end to the famous *Martin Mar-Prelate* controversy. Until his entrance in the fray, the Puritan satirists of the Anglican bishops had carried all before them. Though no whit mealy-mouthed in their invective, they were no match at such weapons with their dangerous antagonist, and quickly desisted.*

* *Nash* was born at *Lowestoft*, *Greene* at *Norwich*, *Harvey* at *Saffron Waldon*. All three had received an University education at *Cambridge*. The story of their quarrel would fill many pages. An imperfect account of it is given by *D'Israeli*. *Harvey* an able scholar, an English and Latin poet, the introducer of hexameter verse into our language, and the friend of *Spenser* and *Sir Philip Sidney*, unwittingly came into collision with *Greene*, one of the foremost in the second rank of Elizabethan dramatists, highly endowed with wit, fancy, and genuine poetic feeling, who, thereupon took occasion 'to canvass him a little' in terms which roused the fury of the former, provoking from him a sharp but laboured invective. This brought into the fray *Nash*, the friend and boon comrade of *Robert Greene*. The two writers are the most conspicuous types in our literature of the prodigal sons of authorship; mournful exemplars of rare gifts misused, and riotously wasted; talents ill-spent; lives prematurely wrecked; their untimely ends darkened by vain regrets and bitter self-reproaches. There is no sadder, more tragic farewell to the world than *Greene's Groatworth of Wit, bought with a million of Repentance*." Quite as touching are the despairing outcries of *Nash* over his broken fortunes in his *Pierce Pennilesse's Supplication to the Devil*. On the death of *Greene*, at the age of 32, *Harvey* suffered not his hate to expire, but issued a narrative of the debaucheries and miseries of his late enemy.

[By a grave oversight on page 465, *Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey*, the literary ornament of his race and era, has been omitted from the list of our earlier poets of East Anglian origin. Surrey was born either at Framlingham or Kenninghall, seats of the oldest and most illustrious of our English Noble Houses, —member of a family linked for centuries with the history of the district. Few Poets, declares Southey, who have written so little have produced so great an effect on the literature of their country. Surrey, our English Petrarch, visited Italy, introducing thence the sonnet, canzone, and *terza rima*, those “sweet and stately measures of Italian poesie,” setting a fashion to the Court of Henry VIII., and giving to English verse, in conjunction with Wyatt, that bias which impressed its character upon the later golden age of Elizabeth. In the long interval between Chaucer and Spenser, the foremost names in English verse are those of Lydgate, Hawes, and Surrey, all East Anglians.]

The authorised translation of the Bible in the reign of James I., is the most memorable incident in the modern history of the English language, and whether we regard its influence at the time as being the chief means of setting up, amid conflicting native dialects and foreign invaders, a standard of uniformity, or its value as a breakwater against the later waves of innovation, it would be difficult to overrate its importance. We owe these great results to that wise discrimination which the translators exercised in giving the Teutonic and Latin elements of our language, each their proper rights. Whilst no other example in our literature displays a more happy union of the two great European languages, in no other does the Anglo-Saxon exhibit in equal perfection its powers of nervous strength, of homely simplicity, pathos and beauty. We are apt to overlook how much our version of the Bible has served as an educator of the people, at once their primer, their reading book, and vocabulary. Read aloud at their firesides and in our churches, it has kept alive in

Most terrible of sonnets is that invocation of welcome to Greene from Gabriel Harvey's dead brother, John Harvey, the Physician—

“Come, fellow Greene, come to thy gaping grave!”

A summary vengeance for this outrage was taken by Nash in his “*Have with you to Saffron Waldon*,” an attack which utterly discomfited and silenced Harvey. So rare are these controversial pamphlets that the originals sell for their weight in gold. The reprints are almost as inaccessible to the general reader. The more important are included in Sir Egerton Brydges' *Archæologia*, Reprints of rare Pieces of Prose and Verse. Others have been issued by the Shakespeare Society. They abound, especially Nash's, in the most vigorous dialectic invective of East Anglian origin.

The titles of Nash's assaults on the Martin Mar-Prelates are, *Pap with a Hatchet*; *An Almond for a Parrot*; *Plain Percevall*; *Martin's Month's Mind*; *Return of Cavaliero Pasquil*; *Pasquil's Apology*. The Puritan Mar Prelate Tracts contain internal evidence that they were not written in the Eastern Counties.

our midst a common harmony of thought with language; it has been a link binding together the daily speech of rich and poor, the learned and the simple, and whilst it has in no way checked the growth and vitality of the language, it has been a potent antidote against the linguistic aberrations of our scholars, in their frequent pedantic efforts to inject into the veins of the language multitudes of needless and deleterious novelties.*

It was a fortunate circumstance that the authorized version of the Bible was undertaken before that increased impetus imparted to the Latinization of our written English by the Reformation and the renaissance of Classic literature had acquired, as it did later on in the seventeenth century, almost the force and volume of a spring tide, flooding the works of the great divines and scholars of that age, in whose bulky folios and quartos, thousands of huge, rugged 'conglomerates,' the *debris* of this linguistic deluge are plentifully strewn. Influences precisely similar in their force and effect were simultaneously at work on the Continent; but the reaction against them occurred there much earlier. During the last century the Dutch and Germans freed their tongue from many Latinisms by bringing back or making words of home stock.

Throughout the Stuart period, our learned scholars and divines, discarding their native Anglo-Saxon, sought in the flowing, symmetrical and stately Latin for fitting garments wherewith to clothe the issue of their mental conceptions—an issue often quaint, abstruse and fanciful; delighting in cumbrous periods, involved and intricate. Amongst this literary host, the palm of the *Hyper-Latinistic* is universally assigned to *Sir Thomas Browne*, of Norwich, whose writings require the constant aid of a Latin Dictionary to render them intelligible to an ordinary reader. No other English author has carried to such an excess the multiplication of Latin words with English terminations; too many of

* Strong as are the cords which bind our translation of the Bible to the English heart, they have not availed to save from oblivion a part of its phraseology. In *Booker's Scripture and Prayer Book Glossary* the number of words, or senses of words which have become obsolete since 1611, amounts to 388.

Luther's Translation of the Bible into the High German turned into a new channel the literature and language of North Germany. The Low German, from which the English language is derived, although it has successively overpowered the Old Saxon, the Anglo-Saxon, and the Frisian, and has encroached upon the Scandinavian along the Baltic shores, is not the literary language of Germany. It has sunk into a provincial speech, owing to the literature of Germany being produced in High German. The Reformation determined the ascendancy of the latter: although the Protestant part of Germany lay almost wholly within the limit of the Low German, the language of Luther was the High German of Saxony, and into that his edition of the Scriptures was made. Hence it became the language of the Church, and the schools, and of all writers since that date. The Low German of Holland is the only form of this speech which is the vehicle of a national literature.

which, owing to Dr. Johnson's admiration of the genius of Browne, have found a place in our Dictionary English.*

The pedantic mania amongst scholars for hatching these hybrids, provoked a vigorous protest from a neighbour of Sir Thomas Browne's, *Dr. Nathaniel Fairfax*, of Woodbridge, Suffolk, a man of kindred scientific pursuits, a member of the Royal Society; and from some indications in Browne's Letters, possibly a professional rival.† In the Introduction to his "*Bulk and Selvedge of the World*," 1674, he breaks out thus:—

"Only 'tis like there is one thing which I may be blam'd for by many; and that is a kind of shiness all along of those borrowed words and gaynesses, that Englishmen have pickt and cull'd from other Tongues, under the name of Choyce Words and Sparkling sayings. * * * Thinking with myself, how I an English man would write a book in English tongue, I made it now and then a little of my care, to bring in so many words of that speech, that the Book might thence be called English without mis-calling it. And, indeed, however our smothered tongued Neighbours may have put in a claim for those bewitcheries of speech that flow from Gloss and Chimingness; yet I verily believe that there is no tongue under heaven, that goes beyond our English, for speaking manly, strong and full." * * * "I think it will become those of us who have a more hearty love for what is our own, than wanton longings after what is others, to fetch back some of our own words that have been jostled out in wrong, that worse from elsewhere might be hoisted in; or else to call in from the fields and waters, shops and workhouses, that well-fraught world of words that answers works, by which all learners are taught to do, and not to make a Clatter. * * * Methinks this, of all times, should be the time, wherein, if ever, we should gather up those scattered words of ours that speak works, rather than to suck in those of learned air from beyond the sea, which are as far off sometimes from the things they speak, as they are from us to whom they are spoken."

In Sir Roger L'Estrange, a member of an old Norfolk family, the most active Royalist pamphleteer and news-letter writer of

* The writings of Sir Thomas Browne abound in words like the following:—exenteration, meticulous, lapifidical, farraginous, incrassation, manuduction. In defence of these Latinizations it has been argued that it would be difficult to substitute adequate English words for those which he has employed, and that he by no means seeks to give false elevation to a mean idea by sounding phrases; but that he is compelled by the remoteness of that idea from ordinary apprehension, to adopt extravagant modes of speech.

The letters of Sir Thomas Browne are but little tinctured with his artificial style. Archbishop Trench instances several long paragraphs in his works constructed purely of Saxon words. They are, however, scarcely fair illustrations, consisting of translations from late Anglo-Saxon, so late as to require but slight verbal changes, and the express object of the translator was to show 'in few words how near the Saxon and English meet.' They occur in his *Tract on Languages*.

† This rare and singular little book is in several ways remarkable, notably for its attempt to clothe some of the most incomprehensible of theological quiddities in the terms of mathematical formulæ. To accomplish this, Fairfax, would be hard put to it to dispense with Latinisms, and has evaded the difficulty by manufacturing the most extraordinary compounds and terminations, as bulksoneness, unthoroughfaresom, unnectsomeness, bitlings, bigning, lowning, cleavesom, all-fillingness. The effect of these, mingled with a number of the raciest East Anglian rustic dialectic words is very odd. In his Epistle dedicatory, it is noticeable that the provincialisms introduced are all West country ones; ex., *tee-hees* Exmoor; *rowt*, Devon; *haulier*, Cornish.

the Civil Wars and Restoration, we have the precursor of the journalist of the present day. As an author, he has failed to secure any high position in English literature; his abilities, which were considerable, having been wasted in the production of a swarm of virulent controversial pamphlets, and in the hasty translation of the classics for the booksellers, under pressure of need.* L'Estrange's writings run over with coarse but vigorous idiomatic phrases, and with the colloquial slang of his day. It would amply repay an East Anglian student in search of these, the trouble and pains required to collect and read through his very numerous and now scarce fugitive publications. Two free but humorous writers of a later age, Tom Brown and Ned Ward, appear to have modelled their style and diction on those of L'Estrange. Such of his books as we have been able to lay hands on have been gone through, and a spicilegium of quotations gathered to illustrate the glossary.

The seventeenth century was the palmiest in the literary annals of East Anglia. Next to London and Bristol, in importance came Norwich, the seat of the chief manufacture of the realm, a miniature capital in its literary, ecclesiastical, and social attractions. Writers of the calibre of Bishop Hall and Sir Thomas Browne would have conferred distinction on any district; Isaac Barrow was of Suffolk parentage; Mede, most sagacious interpreter of prophecy, from Essex; John Ray was son of an Essex blacksmith. Scattered over its diocese, were a number of the ablest divines and theological writers of that age. From the Rectory of Snoring in Norfolk proceeded Bishop Pearson. Thomas Fuller, Rector of Waltham Abbey, wisest and wittiest of theologians, had died soon after the Restoration. In the front rank of its Puritan divines, were John Owen, N. Rogers,* Carter, Bridges, and Brinsley.† A Puritan also in the bias of his

* Third son of Sir Hamon L'Estrange, of Hunstanton. He established after the Restoration the first newspaper, *The Public Intelligencer and News*. His pamphleteering attacks on the Whigs and Trimmers, and his office of Licensor of the Press, raised him up a swarm of enemies. One of the best lampoons on L'Estrange is given in the *Harleian Miscellany*, Vol. 6, 4to. ed. 'The Loyal Observer, or Historical Memoirs of the Life and Actions of Roger, the Fidler, 1683.'

Nehemiah Rogers, of Messing, Essex, one of the earlier of the Puritan writers, in the words of Archbishop Trench, "a great, but little known divine,"—so little known that it is difficult to find any notice of him existing in print. His *Expositions of the Parables*, 1632, and his *Naaman the Syrian*, are remarkable for their rich and copious imagery, for their singular freedom from Latinisms, and the racy, vigorous, idiomatic phrases in which they abound. The very scarce volumes of Rogers would better bear reprinting than much of that tedious long-winded matter with which the public of late years have been dosed under the name of choice Puritan Divinity.

† East Anglia was the scene of that most unsavoury outpouring of theologic rancour, the paper war between Francis Bugg, of Mildenhall, and Penn and Whitehead, the Quaker chiefs. Bugg, a backslider from the Society, a perfect "mud volcano" of vituperation, to the great irritation and disgust

poetical conceits, though a Royalist in the accidents of his career, was Francis Quarles, member of a good old Essex family. Phineas and Giles Fletcher, the two best poets of the school of Spenser, whose lives were quietly passed in East Anglian benefices, belong to the earliest generation of the century.* That shrewd mother wit, which had characterised the Elizabethan dramatists and satirists sprung from the district, had descended in some degree to Thomas Shadwell, of Norfolk extraction, immortalized by the invective of Dryden,—

“Through all the realms of dulness absolute.”

An invective somewhat ill bestowed on the wittiest dramatist of the profligate era of the Second Charles.

Many distinguished literary names of East Anglian origin occur throughout the eighteenth century, amongst them the learned and laborious Humphrey, Prideaux, Dean of Norwich, Dr. Samuel Clarke, born and educated at Norwich, pre-eminent as divine, mathematician, metaphysician, and philologist; William Taylor of Norwich, the earliest pioneer in the field of modern German literature; Richard Porson, profoundest classic scholar and critic of his age; Crabbe the poet, Letitia Barbauld, Amelia Opie. In the nineteenth, Bishop Blomfield, Robert Bloomfield, the Taylors, of Ongar, the Martineaus of Norwich, J. J. Gurney, the Aldersons, (East Anglia may lay claim to producing the most highly cultured and intellectual type of English Nonconformity)—Miss Strickland, Borrow, Cobbold, and a number of other living writers whom it would be invidious to name.†

of his old associates, bespattered them with torrents of abuse drawn from their own intemperate denunciation of the “hiring shepherds” of the Establishment. His *Pilgrim's Progress from Quakerism to Christianity*, 1698, and his *Painted Harlot both stript and whipt*, the most remarkable of his numerous publications, are full of local allusions.

* Phineas Fletcher, author of the *Purple Island*, or the *Isle of Man*; Giles Fletcher, of *Christ's Victory and Triumph*. “Both of these brothers, Hallam remarks “are deserving of much praise. They were endowed with minds eminently poetical, and not inferior in imagination to any of their contemporaries.”

† The list given above is of the most meagre imperfect character; leisure failing to hunt up a more complete muster roll of the literary glories of East Anglia. It has been confined, also, to the narrowest limits of the district, the three shires of Norfolk, Suffolk and Essex.

In modern times, East Anglia can show in every department of intellectual achievement an array of illustrious names—in *Statesmanship*:—Walpole, Townshend, Windham, Grafton. *Commerce*:—Gresham; *Law*, Sir Edward Coke (the father and mother of Lord Bacon were both of Suffolk parentage); Lord Chancellor North, educated at Bury, of the Norfolk Circuit, M.P. for Lynn: Lord Chancellor Thurlow was of a Suffolk family, (Thurloe, Cromwell's Secretary, of an Essex family). *Antiquaries*:—Spelman, Cotton, Bishop Tanner, of the *Notitia Monastica*; Joseph Strutt, Whitaker, the historian of *Craven*; King, of the *Munimenta Antiqua*; Ames, Ives, Amyot, Stevenson, Penn, Blomefield. *Medicine*:—Sir Astley Cooper, Lubbock,

Though divines, scholars and pedants* still continued, Cadmus-like, to sow their pages with words of Greek and Latin-fang'd endings; words happily destined to share the fate of 'the learned Theban's' brood, a check was put by the Restoration to that incessant influx of Latinisms by which the English had been drenched—an importation of French words and idioms taking their place. In the course of the century which followed, a series of efforts were made by compilers of dictionaries to range into some degree of uniformity and denomination the floating currency of the language. In the literary mints set up for this purpose, it fared but ill with many of our colloquial English words. Severed from their originals for many ages, their birth and lineage become obscure and forgotten, denounced as harsh and barbarous by wits and essayists, their image and superscription rubbed and obliterated by the wear of time, it was thought the easier task to suppress them, issuing in their place a debased Latin alloy. To Lankester. *Engineering*:—The Cubitts, Ransome, Bidder. *Architecture*:—Wilkins. *Sculpture*:—John Bell. *Music*:—Burney, Buck, Crotch, Hooke, Pettet, Fish. *Painting*:—Gainsborough, Constable, Crome, Beechey. *Agriculture*:—'Turnip', Townshend, and Coke of Holkham. The earliest beginnings of that agricultural implement manufacture which has grown with such wondrous rapidity originated in East Anglia. Its list of writers on Agriculture, Botany, and Natural History is altogether unrivalled. To the names of these as given in *Note*, page 241, may be added Arthur Young, the Rev. J. S. Henslow, Bishop Stanley, Repton, the landscape gardener, and the late Rev. C. D. Badham.

* "Many think that they can never speak elegantly, or write significantly, except they do it in a language of their own devising; as if they were ashamed of their mother tongue, and thought it not sufficiently curious to express their fancies. By means wherof, more French and Latin words have gained ground upon us since the middle of Queen Elizabeth's reign, than were admitted by our ancestors, not only since the Norman, but since the Roman Conquest."—*Heylin*, 1685.

"If you look upon the language spoken in the Saxon time, and the language spoken now, you will find the difference to be just as if a man had a cloak which he wore plain in Queen Elizabeth's days; and since, here has put in a piece of red, and there a piece of blue, and here a piece of green, and there a piece of orange tawney. We borrow words from the French, Italian, Latin, as every pedantic man pleases."—*Selden*.

"As for our English tongue," wrote Richard Bentley, more than one hundred and fifty years ago, "the great alterations it has undergone in the last two centuries are principally owing to that vast stock of Latin words which we have transplanted into our own soil; which being now in a manner exhausted, one may easily presage that it will not have such changes in the two next centuries."

This anticipation has not been fully realised; the great progress of the natural sciences having led to the manufacture of a host of technical terms. If we also might hazard a prediction, we should forebode the probability of a large reinfusion of the Teutonic in the future of the English language. The enormous German influx into the United States, cannot fail to materially affect the vocabulary of our American kindred; of whose debased literary coinage so much has already crept through our newspaper jargon into an undisputed currency. Their authors have already usurped the function of compiling our grammars and dictionaries; and we owe to them some of the best biographies of our language and literature.

have traced them backward to their parent stems, cleansing off the rust of years, asserting their claim of precedence over those which had come in with the Conqueror, would have taxed the industry, ability and reputation of a whole generation of scholars. It was altogether beyond the power of individuals. Besides, it was so much easier to compile vocabularies from our printed literature than to go into the highways and byeways, the fields and hamlets, for the waifs and strays, the uncouth, unfashionable idioms of our language—a task peculiarly thankless and unprofitable at a time when the national genius, as exerted in its literature, was sunk to the lowest ebb of cold, frigid, artificial diction and conceit,—at a time when profligate morals masqueraded in the sheep skins of pastoral simplicity, and bleated of Strephons and Chloes, of Delias and Mirzas; whilst at no other period in our annals had so wide a gulf existed in habits, tastes, ideas and sympathies between the life and language of town and country, as when these Dresden China shepherds and shepherdesses, crook in hand, were indulging in hollow raptures over landskips, grots and purling brooks. How unfashionable at that period were the native originals of our speech, may be seen in the frequent reproaches lavished on them curiously enough, by Swift,* the greatest master in modern days of a simple, homely Anglo-Saxon style.†

To the unfamiliarity on the part of our dictionary compilers with the Teutonic and Scandinavian sources from which the English language was primarily derived, may be ascribed their

Swift, in a paper contributed to the *Tatler*, (No. 230) on the continual corruption of the English tongue from the false refinements of the age, specially denounces “the abbreviations and elisions by which consonants of most obdurate sounds are joined together without one softening vowel to intervene (e. g. *drudg'd*, *disturb'd*, *rebuk'd*, *fledg'd*): and all this only to make a syllable of two, directly contrary to the examples of the Greeks and Romans; altogether of the Gothic strain, and of a natural tendency towards relapsing into barbarity, which delights in monosyllables, and uniting of mute consonants, as it is observable in all the Northern languages; and this is still more visible in the next refinement, which consists in pronouncing the first syllable in a word that has many, and dismissing the rest, such as *phizz*, *hipps*, *mobb*, *pozz*, *rep*, and many more; when we are already loaded with monosyllables which are the disgrace of our language. Thus we cram one syllable, and cut off the rest; as the owl fattened her mice after she had bit off their legs to prevent them from running away; and if ours be the same reason for maiming words, it will certainly answer the end, for I am sure no other nation will desire to borrow them.”

Sir Walter Scott remarks on this passage, that notwithstanding the ridicule thus thrown on our barbarous contractions by *Swift*, he constantly fell into the same error in his private letters to *Stella*.

Swift remarks, *Tatler*, No. 230, “the war has introduced abundance of polysyllables, which will never be able to live many more campaigns. *Speculations*, *operations*, *preliminaries*, *ambassadors*, *palisadoes*, *communications*, *battalions*.” *Swift* failed to divine that words like these would become the petted of our vocabularies and spelling books; the crucial tests by schoolmasters and examiners of an acquaintance with the English language.

deliberate exclusion of so many colloquial and vernacular words.* It was a work less arduous, to swell their pages by ringing facile changes on Latin terminations, setting down native idioms as low, vulgar or obsolete, that to search out Teutonic etymologies, or admit an absence of acquaintance with them. Admirable as are Dr. Johnson's explanations, his etymologies are notoriously defective; and as regards the influence of his labours on the language, heightened as that influence was by a great and justly deserved reputation, it may be questioned whether it was not, on the whole, pernicious rather than beneficial.†

The Dictionaries of Bailey, Johnson, and Ash abound in the most preposterous Latinisms. Thus, smoky, becomes fuliginous; pav'd, stratuminated; fury, furiousness; doubt, dubitation; rob, depeculate; kiss, deosculate; tear, delacerate; weep, delacrymate; near, propinquitous. The impress set on the language by their labours, continues unchecked and paramount. The incorporation of a mass of scientific terminologies in our most recent dictionaries imparts to them a still more foreign and exotic aspect. One result is that at the present day our dictionary English is well nigh as remote from our rural colloquial speech as that of the Norman lord from his Anglo-Saxon vassal.

* One very noticeable illustration of the exclusion of the spoken in favour of the *written* side of the language in our modern dictionaries, is the disappearance to make room for quotations from authors of those *proverbial and colloquial illustrations of a word*, by which the earlier dictionary makers, in most European languages, sought to define its varying significations. Cotgrave's French-Eng. Dictionary, 1632, is particularly rich in them, so is Sewel's Dutch Dictionary, 1708. Their re-introduction, in the pages of the Philological Society's New English Dictionary, would form a valuable feature.

† Lord Macaulay has criticised in one of his happiest passages the wide difference between Dr. Johnson when colloquial,—vigorous, easy, natural, and Dr. Johnson when literary,—making little fishes, to use Goldsmith's witticism, talk like whales. "Johnson, as Mr. Burke most justly observed, appears far greater in Boswell's books than in his own. His conversation appears to have been quite equal to his writings in matter, and far superior to them in manner. When he talked, he clothed his wit and his sense in forcible and natural expressions. As soon as he took his pen in his hand to write for the public, his style became systematically vicious. All his books are written in a learned language,—in a language which nobody hears from his mother or his nurse,—in a language in which nobody ever quarrels, or drives bargains, or makes love,—in a language in which nobody ever thinks. It is clear, that Johnson himself did not think in the dialect in which he wrote. The expressions which came first to his tongue were simple, energetic and picturesque. When he wrote for publication, he did his sentences out of English into Johnsonese. His letters from the Hebrides to Mrs. Thrale, are the original of that work of which the *Journey to the Hebrides* is the translation; and it is amusing to compare the two versions. 'When we were taken up stairs,' says he in one of his letters, 'a dirty fellow bounced out of the bed on which one of us was to lie.' This incident is recorded in the *Journey* as follows:—'Out of one of the beds on which we were to repose, started up, at our entrance, a man black as a Cyclops from the forge.' Sometimes Johnson translated aloud. 'The Rehearsal,' he said, very unjustly, 'has not wit enough to keep it sweet;' then, after a pause, 'it has not vitality enough to preserve it from putrefaction.'

Another result of filling our dictionaries with alien idioms has been the production of reading books for our village schools, composed of words as foreign to the home language, ideas and associations of the people, as Hebrew and Arabic—words which act as serious impediments to the education of their children—words got painfully by heart, but barren of the slightest quickening power to their intelligence.*

Dean Swift, in his *Letter to Harley, a Proposal for correcting, improving, and ascertaining the English Tongue*, 1712, relates in a few words the vicissitudes it had undergone the century and a half preceding,—

‘The period wherein the English tongue received most improvement, I take to commence with the beginning of Queen Elizabeth’s reign, and to conclude with the great rebellion in forty-two. ’Tis true there was a very ill taste, both of style and wit, which prevailed under King James the First; but that seems to have been corrected in the first years of his successor. * * *

From the civil war to this present time, I am apt to doubt whether the corruptions in our language have not, at least, equalled the refinement of it. During the usurpation, such an infusion of enthusiastic jargon prevailed in every writing, as was not shaken off in many years after. To this succeeded that licentiousness which entered with the restoration, and from infecting our religion and morals fell to corrupt our language. * * * The Court, which used to be the standard of propriety and correctness of speech, was then, and I think, has ever since continued the worst school in England for that accomplishment.’

* *The Report of the Royal Commission on Education*, 1861, contains a number of remarks made by the Inspectors on this great drawback to the teaching of the people. “The mass of children,” observe the Commissioners, “get little more than a trick of mechanically pronouncing the letters, and the words which they read convey hardly any ideas to their minds.” Mr. Foster writes—“Only a very small proportion of the children seem to attain any adequate understanding of the language of books during their school life.” Another Inspector states—“*The unfamiliar words evidently conveyed no notion whatever to the children’s minds.*” In after life, the ill-results of severing “book-larnin” from the vernacular of common life, pursue the labourer. In Church, whilst the minister, whose education has been a saturation with classical idioms, *amplifies, dilates, digresses, expounds, enlarges, illustrates, expostulates, elucidates, exhorts, objurates, and perorates, in copious, flowing, ornate, well-balanced and rounded periods, his explanation and application of the Gospel message soar majestically above the heads of his dear hearers at an elevation parallel with the Georgium Sidus.* Meanwhile, placid, sedate, reposing from his week-day toil, the labourer “sits his legs upon the seat, and thinks o’nothin;” an occupation in which that good yeoman, his master, is usually very busy “helpin’ on ‘im.” To witness the outward and visible signs of such ministrations upon a village congregation, its irritating effects upon the wearied restless children, its gaping, mesmerising soporific action upon their elders, suggests the inquiry whether Protestantism, whilst denouncing so loudly the enormity of the Romish Church in giving its services to the people in a foreign tongue, has been sufficiently careful to avoid a like objection. To read much of the divinity of the Stuart period, Puritan and Anglican both, the principal change effected in public worship appears to have been the replacing by an English ritual and a prolix Latinised discourse, the Latin ritual, and a sermon in the vulgar tongue of the elder church. Which of the two be the more edifying to the laity, would furnish matter of controversy, and open up several trains of reflection. It appears but natural that the religion of

Until a very recent date, our provincial dialects have been regarded as so many varying corruptions of the written standard of English, instead of what modern philology has shewn them to be—the replenishers of our ‘well of English undefiled.’ That so many thousands of words appear in archaic dictionaries and glossaries classed as provincial, has arisen, in great measure, from accident and caprice. Accident, inasmuch, as of the life of words as of men, the lines of Horace are equally true—

‘*Vixere fortes ante Agamemnona multi,*’ &c.

Failing in gaining adoption at the hands of our early authors, in whose writings they would have crystallized into the durable mass of literary English, multitudes of words exceeding in force, precision, raciness, or happiness of idiom their more fortunate rival synonymes, have sunk into neglect and oblivion.

‘*Carent quia vate sacro,*’

A harder fate has awaited many, which, after finding their way into use amongst writers of a secondary order of merit or interest, have suffered comparative extinction through the caprice of the compilers of our dictionaries, who, in their self-assumed task of draughting words into the rank and file of the standing forces of the English language—whilst discarding some as too old, others too new—have rejected multitudes, of native lineage and ancient descent, as non-effectives, without assigning any reasonable cause; admitting, at the same time, a host of aliens. Dr. Johnson, in the Preface to his Dictionary, lays down the following as his shibboleth:—“Obsolete words are admitted when they are found in authors not obsolete; or when they have any force or beauty that may deserve revival:” thus arrogating the added function of pronouncing sentence on the vitality of English authors; although none knew better than the sturdy dogmatist how prone each age is to reverse the literary fiat of its predecessors. Not less arbitrary and capricious is Richardson in his great Dictionary of our literary English. “Words,” he writes, “called archaic, and which are now obsolete, have been diligently sought for; and all such, but no other, as could contribute any aid to the investigations of etymology as diligently preserved.” In this sentence of a preface, otherwise remarkable for its modesty, Richardson constitutes himself judge without appeal within the realms of etymology, vast provinces of which still remain but partially explored.

Provincial words, as *such*, remarks Archbishop Trench, have no common life should be taught in language, idioms and illustrations drawn from common life; and our preachers might take a hint from Abbot Samson of Bury, whom, it would seem, “the common people heard gladly,” and who, his Chronicler describes as “a man who though eloquent both in French and Latin, yet shining more by forcible reasoning than ornate phraseology, knew how to read with fit emphasis the Scriptures in English, and was wont to preach in English to the people; yet, according to that Norfolk tongue wherein he was born and nourished.”

right to a place in a Dictionary of the English tongue. Not those, however, which, though they be local or provincial now, were once current over the whole land. "Many such, once belonging to the written and spoken language of all England, and having free course through the land, have now fallen from their former state and dignity, have retreated to remote districts, and there maintain an obscure existence still; citizens once, they are only provincials now. These properly find place in a dictionary, not, however, in right of what they now are, but of what they once have been. I regret the absence of a number of these from our dictionaries, and will instance a few." The majority of the instances he proceeds to adduce are drawn from East Anglian retreats—*spong, hazle, roasting, dozzled, pulke, clitch, wanze*, &c., words which appear in some of the noblest passages of Fuller, Hacket, Henry More, Rogers, Holland, and others,—words which Dr. Trench declares 'ought to find a place in our dictionaries.'

There is a further reason why many of the East Anglian words *will* probably recover their place in our future dictionaries. To continue the Archbishop's similes—having fallen, or rather been elbowed from their former high estate, that which happens daily in our overcrowded little island, chanced to them—they migrated—

"To that New World, which is the Old."

This occurred two hundred years ago. The nomenclature of New England reveals how large was the colonising element introduced from East Anglia*. Robinson, a leader of the Pilgrim Fathers, was for a period a Yarmouth pastor. On the New England soil the exiles took root: their growth has been coeval and co-extensive with America's greatness, and to-day they are neither obscure citizens nor poor relations. We have been at some pains in our glossary to make the acquaintance of these descendants of our earliest colonists, and to trace their pedigrees. "Those parts of Great Britain which have contributed most to our provincialisms," writes *Bartlett*, in his *Dictionary of Americanisms*, "are the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk, and the Scottish Borders. It was chiefly from these counties that New England was colonised; hence their peculiarities of language are most numerous in the New England States." So, also, *Ehewyn*, in his *Glossary of Supposed Americanisms*—"If one wished to know how English was spoken two hundred years ago in England, he would find it out sooner by a visit to New, than by any attempts at discovery in Old England. The Yankees, or New Englanders,

* The earliest settled portions of the New England States are thickly dotted with East Anglian names, e.g., Attleboro', Brandon, Norwich, Windham (frequent), Yarmouth (occurs several times), Braintree, Burnham, Woodford, Epping, Newmarket, Waltham, Milford, Cambridge, Ipswich, Essex, Thetford, Colchester, Acton, Wickford, and many others.

preserve, to a great extent, the mode of speaking of their pilgrim parents, while in the land of their fathers that has sank into the obsolete, or subsided amongst the dialects or provincialisms. Almost every English Provincial glossary contains some of those words now in use in New England, though on the whole, the North of England vocabulary contains the most, and the East Anglian the next largest numbers." If the North Anglian contingent of modern Americanisms which our own collation leads us to disbelieve, be the more considerable, there can be no doubt that, with scarce an exception, the most famous examples are of East Anglian derivation. We will only instance twelve—*cave in, chew up, whittle, diggings, squatter, tarnation, cute, snags, kind o', slick, kedge, and rile*.

The most distinctive characteristics of the present East Anglian dialect are to be found in its two class dialects, the rural and the coast. The most ancient is probably the former. History and the aspect of the country shew Eastern Norfolk to have been a well cultivated and enclosed district from a very early period. Isolated on three sides by wide heaths, marshes, and the sea, it was almost severed from its neighbours. Peopled by a primitive race of small farmers, many of whom cultivated their own lands, it possessed the conditions most favourable for the perpetuation of localized speech and usages.* The features of its simple and primitive daily life, some of which still linger on, are to be found in the pages of Tusser, the old custom of the labourer living under the same roof and eating at the table of his master, being hardly yet extinct. The old Saxon terms for the daily occupations of the farm enjoy a green old age. Among the most interesting of their archaic words are those employed to designate the birds, animals, insects, flowers, and vegetation of the district. The requirements of marsh farming, which demands constant care in drainage and embanking, gave rise to a set of technical terms, many borrowed from the Dutch, and which appear to be confined to the neighbourhood of Yarmouth.†

Along the coast we have a class as stationary and stereotyped

* The language most likely to continue long without alteration would be that of a nation raised a little—and but a little—above barbarity, secluded from strangers, and totally employed in procuring the conveniences of life. . . . Man thus busied and unlearned, having only such words as common use requires, would perhaps long continue to express the same notions by the same signs.—*Dr. Johnson*.

† Many English words have been borrowed from the Flemish, Netherlandish, and Low Dutch,—the Flemings, but above all the Hollanders, having been our masters in many handicrafts. Such are words in husbandry, gardening, handicrafts and seamanship.

No European language has suffered more neglect from its neighbours than the Dutch. The Netherlandish literature of the 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries which, if properly worked, would yield a richer harvest, probably, than any other cognate source of instruction upon early English philology, has, hitherto, been left untouched.

as the rural freeholders. A fisherman rarely wanders far from his cradle or marries out of his own community. His callings of fisherman and seaman abound in technical terms, most of which may be traced to Old Norse, Friesic, and Batavian sources.* Many on this coast blend the two avocations of farm labourer and fisherman, combining both dialects, and uttering them with that superior energy and readiness which distinguishes the speech of the coast from the inland farm labourer.

* Traces of this Batavian or Dutch element will be found in the dialect of East Anglia. At this day, the Yarmouth sailor, who for more than a thousand years has trafficked with the Dutch, has no difficulty in making himself understood in the ports of Antwerp and Rotterdam. Archbishop Trench has noticed in his *English Past and Present*, that many of our sea terms are Dutch, as "sloop, schooner, yacht, boom, skipper, tafferel, to smuggle, to wear ship, to skate, stivers, &c." The British fleet is named from the Scandinavian flaaide, ship board from skipsborde; steersman from styrmænd; wreck from vræg. An English earl in his yacht corresponds with a Danish jarl in his jagt.

The North Frisian Islands facing the Atlantic off the coast of Sleswick, are supposed to have been Old Saxon in the second and third centuries. *Latham*, in his *Ethnology of the British Islands*, describes a party of the islanders he fell in with. "Those," says the driver, who was himself half Dane and half German, "are from Fohr. They have been to Flensburg to see one of their relations. He is a sailor. They are all sailors in Fohr. Some of them, perhaps, smugglers—they all dress so—I can't speak to them—my brother can—he has been in England, and an Englishman can talk to them—they talk half Danish and half Platt-Deutsch, and half English—more than half. They were Englishmen once—a good sort of people—took no part in the war—did not much care for the Danes, though the Danes took pains to persuade them—so did the Germans, but they did not much care for the Germans either—strong men—good soldiers—good sailors—Englishmen, but not like the Englishmen I've seen myself. My brother's been in London and America, and can talk with them."

"What is thus said about their English-hood is commonly believed by the Danes and Germans of the Frisian localities. They are English in some way or other, though how no one knows exactly. And many learned men hold the same view. It is a half-truth. They are more English, and, at the same time, more Dutch, than any of their neighbours; more so than either Dane or German, but for all that they are something that is neither English nor Dutch. They are *Frisians* of the same stock as the Frisians of Friesland, whom they resemble in form, and dress, and manners, and speech, and temper, and history. But from the Frisians of the South they have been cut off for many centuries, partly by the hand of man, partly by the powers of nature, partly by invasions from Germans, and partly by overwhelming inbreaks of the Ocean. * * *

Every Frisian—*Friese* as he calls himself—is an agriculturist, and it is only in the villages that the Frisian tongue is spoken. * * *

But in all the little hamlets, the well-built old fashioned farm-houses, with gable-ends of vast breadth, and massive thatched roofs that make two-thirds of the height of the house, and a stork's nest on the chimney, and a cow-house at the end, are Frisian; and, if you can overhear what they say amongst themselves, you find that, without being English it is somewhat like it. *Woman* is the word which sounds strangest to both the German and the Dane, and, it is generally the first instance given of the peculiarity of the Frisian language. "Why can't they speak properly, and say *Kone*?" says the Dane. "*Weib* is the right word," says the German. "Who ever says *woman*?" cry both. * *

You may distinguish a Frisian parish as the Eton grammar distinguishes nouns of the neuter gender. It is *-omne quod exit in -um*; for so end nine out of ten of the Frisian villages.

The disturbing innovations to which the East Anglian speech would be exposed after the Norman Conquest, would arise chiefly from the unusually large monastic Latinising element which flourished within its borders, and the pilgrimages to those shrines for which the district was famous. The considerable migration from the Low Countries into Norfolk, caused by religious persecution, seems to have been swallowed up by the large populations of Norwich and Yarmouth, without affecting the local dialect. The latter place would be acted upon by many influences, notably, its great annual Free Fair, bringing together for six weeks, a motley multitude from the neighbouring shores of Dutch, Flemings, Picards, Danes, and others.*

This district, so rich in topography, is equally fortunate in its glossaries.† The vocabulary of East Anglia, by the *Rev. Robert Forby*, one of the earliest and still among the very best of its class, was the work of a gentleman, and a scholar resident throughout his life in his native county of Norfolk. It was a posthumous publication, issued 1830, in 2 volumes, with a memoir prefixed by his pupil, Mr. Dawson Turner. It contains about 2,500 words, to many of which copious explanations are attached. Mr. Forby was among the first labourers in the field, and had not the great advantages which later glossarists have enjoyed of comparing his collections (and etymologies) with those gathered in other districts.

Earlier, in point of publication, was *Major Moor's Suffolk Words and Phrases*, 1 vol., Woodbridge, 1823, a book endeared to the student of our dialects by its genial enthusiastic spirit. Returning to his native county, after a twenty years' absence in India, its long forgotten provincialisms fell upon his ears like the once familiar tones of old and dear friends, and the task of gathering up the local phraseology was taken up with an ardour

* Many Dutch and Flemings were hired for the fisheries by the Yarmouth merchants. The presence of a considerable Dutch element in the town is attested by repeated allusions to it in the Assembly Books of the Corporation. Frequent regulations for their surveillance and control were issued. Their numbers at times alarmed the town authorities, and enactments requiring the inhabitants not to harbour or lodge them, were promulgated.

† For the learned, but ill-fated Eugene Aram, the schoolmaster of Lynn, the merit of being the true father of comparative philology has been claimed, a MS. copy of a dictionary on the principles of the science having been left by him. Having no knowledge of Sanscrit, he assumed the Keltic to be the common parent and original source from which the English is derived.

Amongst the English Dictionaries of last century, a creditable place is occupied by the "English Etymology, or a Derivative Dictionary of the English Language, in two Alphabets, tracing the Etymology of English words derived, I.—From the Greek and Latin. II.—From the Saxon and Northern Tongues, 1783, 4to., by the Rev. G. W. Lemon, Rector of Geyton Thorne, Head Master of Norwich Free School," a post in which he was succeeded by Dr. Parr and Valpy. The Dictionary is highly commended by Parr as a work of great erudition. Lemon was aided in his task by papers left by his pupil Edward Spelman, a descendant of the great Norfolk antiquary.

which communicates its infection to the reader. From its extreme rarity, we conclude a very limited edition of it was printed. Major Moor combats indignantly the remark of *Grose*, that 'the East Country scarcely affords a sufficiency of local words to form a division,' going to the length of asserting that 'East Anglia retains more lingual localisms than all other portions of England collectively.' The number of leading words in his collection, set down as *Suffolcisms*, he states, exceeds 2,500. One of the special features of *Moor's Suffolk Words*, is the writer's attempt throughout to identify many of its provincialisms as equally common to Scotland, even more so than to its immediate neighbour, *Essex*; a resemblance which he attributes to the comparative isolation of both districts, from those disturbing influences which so greatly modified the Anglo-Saxon. In many instances, Major Moor has been tempted to press this theory beyond the limits it will fairly warrant. The labours of *Forby* and *Moor* form the basis of the present glossary. Both writers containing so many words in common, it has been found impossible in every instance to discriminate the obligations respectively due, but frequent reference to each has been made. A considerable weeding of their collections was needed, both giving way to the prevailing weakness of the compilers of our provincial glossaries,—that of admitting, without sufficient scrutiny, great numbers of phrases, as archaic, which are simply words of the most ordinary use, but maimed and distorted by a coarse or vicious local pronunciation. Large additions, amounting at least to a third, have been made. These last have been gleaned from a multiplicity of sources, amongst others, from the local words which appear in the following :—

Tusser's Five Hundred Points of Good Husbandry, 8vo., *Mavor's* ed., 1812.

Sir John Cullum's History of Hawsted, 4to., 1784.

Marshall's Agriculture of Norfolk, 2 vol. 8vo., 1795.

Raynbird's Prize Essay on Agriculture of Suffolk, 8vo., 1849.

Ray's East Country Words, not generally used, 4th ed. 8vo., 1768.

Grose and Pegge's Provincial Glossary, 8vo., 1839.

Anna Gurney's Provincial Words of Norfolk*, published in *Philological Society's Transactions*, 1855. Also a Note, apparently by the same writer, in *Sir T. Browne's Works*, vol. 4, *Wilkin's Edition*, 1835.

Norfolk Words, contributed by the Rev. E. Gillett to the *Norfolk Archæologia*, vol. 5.

The archaic dictionaries of *Nares*, *Halliwell*, and *Wright*, have been dredged for their East Anglian words. Lastly, a

* Among the local philologists an honourable place must be assigned to *Miss Gurney*, of *Northrepps*, translator of the *Saxon Chronicle*. *Miss Gurney* inclines to the opinion that the Danish incursions had considerable effect upon the Anglo-Saxon, remarking that the portion of the *Saxon Chronicle* written during their sway in England, is quite in a different dialect from the earlier part, and may be called *Dano-Saxon*; not being, however, so marked a departure from the original as the subsequent dialect, the *Norman-Saxon* or *Semi-Saxon*.

number of words collected personally, together with some communicated by friends have been added.

The main contribution of the present writer to the Glossary of East Anglian Provincialisms, consists of the series of illustrative extracts, drawn almost *exclusively* from authors born or resident within its borders. Many of these appear in books difficult of access to ordinary readers, and to collect them has been a task of some difficulty. As rescuing from the imputation of being mere obscure and rustic vulgarisms, number of words withdrawn from the written, but still lingering in the colloquial language of the locality, these extracts have considerable value and interest, inasmuch as the same influences are shown at work in this nook and corner, as in other parts of England; multitudes of expressive and idiomatic local words giving way to foreign invaders.

It is matter of regret that Lincoln, Huntingdon, Cambridge, and Herts., the counties bordering on East Anglia, possess no local collections of their dialect. In that of Lincoln, a strong infusion of Danish and Norse ingredients might naturally be expected, supplying valuable materials for comparison with the Norfolk dialect, whilst those of the three counties lying westerly, would aid us in defining more accurately than we are now able to do, the geographical limits of the provincialisms of East Anglia, gradually weakening as they come in contact with the Mercian and East Saxon territories in the South Midland counties, the seats of the Northamptonshire and Cockney Dialects.

Essex has no collections of its dialect worthy of the name. The two very meagre lists of its words existing in print, have been incorporated in our glossary. The dialect of the county is of a composite character, a blending of Anglian and Saxon elements which here come together. Along its southern borders it is tinged with the peculiarities of Kent and Middlesex. Its utterances are spoken in the Suffolk whine, with slight modifications.

A collation of the East Anglian vocabulary, with a tolerably ample collection of our provincial glossaries, has enabled the writer to correct a number of the conjectural etymologies of Forby and Moor. Many others which were wanting have been supplied from Keltic, Norse, Dutch, and Frisic sources. This part of his task, through want of leisure and familiarity with the northern languages, has been more imperfectly executed than he could have wished. Many of the words of his predecessors, the process of collating has shewn to be neither peculiar nor confined to the district. This has led to their withdrawal from the present glossary. Some, however, have been retained, as in frequent instances the fact of the widely diffused prevalence of a provincialism is of extreme importance for philological and antiquarian deductions; the supposition of its existence being confined within narrow limits, leading to erroneous speculations

and conclusions. In the case of others, which bear interpretations varying more or less in districts widely severed, it has been felt desirable to bring these discrepancies together, their variations of meaning, often affording insight into local habits and modes of thought, whilst their differences of spelling and pronunciation illustrate those phonetic characteristics which, strictly speaking, constitute the 'dialectic' feature of our provincialisms.

The Rev. R. Forby points out that our English system of accentuation has a direct tendency to produce indistinctness in pronouncing final syllables. But few genuine English words are accented there. Naturally, this tendency is aggravated in the mouths of the illiterate; and Norfolk is charged with uttering its final syllables in such a clumsy, careless, and slurring manner as often to defy all guess at the letters of which they may consist. For instance: ashup, eshup or ushup for ash-heap; nettus or nuttus, neat-house; duffus or dowus, dove-house; allus, alehouse; sidus, sideways; ollus or allost, always. For instances of the tendency to clutter and huddle together the syllables of two or three words—wunt, would not; mant, may not; eent, is not; heent, has not; hant, had not; tut, to it; dun do it; cup, come up; giz, give us; k'ye here, look ye here; "M'aunt bod me g'into th'archard, and call m'uncle into house."

In a number of words contrary to modern usage, the accent is laid upon the last syllable, as expensive, positive, native, ene-my, en-vy.* Adjectives in *able* are accented on the penultimate, as lamentable, abominable. Adverbs in *ly*, when given emphatically are accented on the final syllable, as continual-ly, certain-ly. The final syllable *le* is made prominent by pronouncing it *ul*, ex. *possibul*.†

* Mr. Forby defends some of these pronunciations. Those ending in *ive* are derived from the Latin, *via* the French, and were originally accented on the last syllable. So also were words like enemy and envy. The termination *ly* is the Saxon lick, synonymous with like, and would be originally pronounced more distinctly than in its present form.

† *Ish* is the sound of the Saxon adjective. We speak of churlish, rakish, Jewish, British. Yorkshiremen deal much in this termination. A lame person is lamish, a decent person is decentish. This is a practice that has all the countenance of the original language. Like is often used in the same way of tail. 'Good-looking like;' 'modest like.' Sometimes it is added to participles. 'It kept moving like;' 'they were very loving like.' Wherever our modern words end in *ly*, they originally did in *like*. Godly was Godlike, priest, priestlike.—R. Winter Hamillon's *Yorksh. Dialect*.

† These pronunciations, Archbishop Trench remarks represent past stages of the language, and are not barbarous violations of it. "Of certain ways of pronouncing words, which are now in use among the lower classes, but not among the higher, as for example, contrary, mischievous, blasphemous, it would be abundantly easy to show by a multitude of quotations from our poets; and those reaching very far down, that these are merely the retention of the earlier pronunciation by the people, after the higher classes have abandoned it.

The almost universal use of 'his,' both applied to animate and inanimate objects by our rural population, in place of 'its,' is but the retention of an old

Some words have the letter *d* or *t* added to them, *e. g.*, drown*d*, drown; nice-*t*, nice; scholar*d*, scholar; verment, vermin. To some a whole syllable is added, as musicianer, musician; others have an *s* prefixed, as snoose, squench; in some the first syllable is changed, as bagonet, bayonet; discommode, incommode; in some, the last, as chimly and chimby, chimney; rheumatics, rheumatism; rubbage, rubbish; skirnage, skirmish. He instances the corruption of Latin law terms, davy, affidavit; nolus-bolus, nolens volens; non-plush, non plus; and among many other distortions; bewiddle, bewilder; howsomdever, howsoever; miscomhap, mishap; jocotius, jocose; fisherate, officiate; obligate, oblige; and oudacious, permiscous, plumpendicular, &c. In other instances an inversion of letters occurs, as scrummage,* surficate, intrust for interest, &c.

The more noticeable peculiarities of East Anglian grammar are a frequent omission of the definite article, *ex.*, walk into house, 'come out of barn;† an addition of a plural to some of the numerals, as *twooses*, *threeses*; plural terminations in *en*, as *housen*, *cheesen*; but this last old English form is not so general as in the Southern dialects. *Er* is added to names of places to indicate residents, as a Thetford*er*; and to callings, as a masoner, musicianer; *en* to adjectives and participles, as *carven*, golden, leathern, hornen, tinnen, glassen. Adjectives are used for adverbs, as 'to behave rude;' *ful* is added to strengthen the meanings of adjectives, as *longful*. In comparatives and superlatives an additional octave is added to the scale of degrees—lessrer, lessrest, lesserest, lesserer still, lesest of all, worstest, most worstest. That common tendency—in which the latent poetic instincts of our rustic life find their most congenial expression—that of forming compound words of nouns and adjectives for the purpose of creating vigorous similes, exists here in its concisest form, *ex.*, bone-dry, gall-bitter, slug-slow, frog-cold, dog-tired. To forge those weapons of vituperation which appear to rouse into its most energetic effort the linguistic inventive power of the people, an adverbial turn is given to grammatical usage once common to all. The pronoun 'its' is of quite modern introduction, it does not occur in the whole of our Bible, rarely in Shakespeare, seldom in Milton.

* " When u or e come before r a curious metathesis is observable. Burst is converted into brust; curdle, crudle; leathern, leathren; christened, chirsened; cistern, cistren. Now the Saxons had a similar method. *Work* though spelt with an o has the power of u: from that spring *wright* and *wrought*. *Burnt* of the battle was the ancient phrase: according to the same law it has become *brunt*.—*Hamilton's Yorks. Dialect*.

† The elision of vowels, and even consonants, is another fruitful source of peculiarity. There is high sanction for this in Greek and Latin poetry; and in our purest epics it is done. The French constantly practice it in pronouncing their language, however they write it.—*R. Winter Hamilton's Nugæ Literariæ.—Yorkshire Dialect*.

compound epithets by the addition of *ly*, as toss-pot-ly, stuff-gut-ly, ram-shack-ly. Ancient usages of pronouns are maintained, as *what* for *who* or *which*; *me* is used as a nominative case—my wife and me. *You*, *your*, are variously pronounced you, yo, yar, yer. *Together* is employed as a noun, used familiarly in addressing a number of persons collectively—‘Well, how are yer all together?’ *Thou*, *thee*, &c., are frequently omitted, except in direct address. Our common country colloquialisms violate no laws of language, they have simply remained stationary in their grammatical forms whilst the language has kept in motion. Phrases like—I’m mortal ‘fear’d on ‘m—wheat is riz—ax the banns—the woman what came yesterday—shall us go—my uncle, he said—the miller, his cart—give me them there things—are good, but antiquated English.*

Amongst local uses of verbs, *war* is in constant use for *was*, Whilst *he be*, common in other dialects, is but rarely used here. *be* is employed in all other persons of the present tense, I be, ye be, &c, and the first and third persons of the verb, indicative mood, present tense, are both given alike in many verbs, as I love, he love—a form to be found in Chaucer, Tusser, and Pepys. A tendency is manifested to reduce the irregular verbs to ordinary constructions, retaining the weak preterites where stronger have superseded them, as solded, tilled, catched, seeked, worked, instead of sold, told, caught, sought, wrought, retaining however some of the old discarded strong preterites, as snow, sned; shriek, shruck; rise, riz; bid, bod; sit, sot; give, gov; smite, smit; drove, driv—never *drive*, but sometimes *druv*. In participles *t* is substituted for *d*, as kilt, killed; spilt, spilled. *Being* has a grammatical construction given to it resembling the Latin ablative absolute, *ex.*, ‘I could not meet you yesterday, *being* I was in bed.’

In prepositions, *by* and *on* are used for *of*—I know’d no harm *by* the man; I heard *on* it yesterday; I told him *on* it. *In* for *on*, *ex.*, Go out *in* the house, out *in* temper, out *in* health. *Of* for *on*—He got up *of* his horse. *Off* follows *of*—He fell *off* of his horse. *Into* for upon; and for on and upon, *a-top-of* and *a-top-on* are employed. Double negatives in constant use in English until last century are still retained here—*no nothing at all* forming the climax of negation.*

* “Many of the words, idioms, and turns of speech of our country people, which we are ready to set down as vulgarisms, solecisms of speech, violations of the primary rules of grammar, do merely attest that those who employ them have not kept abreast with the advance of the language and nation, but have been left behind by it. The usages are only local in the fact, that having once been employed by the whole body of the English people, they have now receded from the lips of all except those in some certain country districts, who have been more faithful than others to the traditions of the past.”—*Trench*.

* The Rev. R. Winter Hamilton, in his paper on the *Yorkshire Dialect*, observes—“Double comparatives and superlatives particularise our conver-

One of the most valuable features of the Rev. R. Forby's vocabulary is the elaborate essay, prefixed to his first volume, on the characteristics of East Anglian pronunciation. Commencing with the remark that in modern English words derived from Anglo-Saxon, the principal vowels or diphthongs have acquired breadth in the course of their descent, instancing *cu*, a cow; *hus*, house; *brun*, brown; he proceeds to show that this tendency to greater breadth is by the East Angles absolutely inverted, the prevalent character of their pronunciation being a narrowness and tenuity; an indescribably odd splay-mouthed utterance, in which all the organs of speech, tongue, teeth, and palate, seem to be running foul of one another in full play—the opposite of the round sonorous mouth-filling tones of Northern English. The broad and open sounds of vowels, the rich and full tones of diphthongs are reduced. Some few words become broader, not, however, that they are made fuller and more flowing, but for the most part harsher and coarser. This tenuity of the vowel pronunciation, of which Mr. Forby complains, is common to the Old Frisian,* and is probably derived thence, rather than from the Anglo-Saxon.

In some parts, the offensiveness of the dialect to the ear is greatly aggravated by its delivery in a shrill, whining recitative, commonly called 'the Norfolk drant' and 'the Suffolk whine,' (the latter the broader and more drawling intonation) the speaker's voice running up and down a half-octave of sharp notes, with now and then a most querulous cadence.† The vowel *a* is often pronounced like *e*. At Lynn, and the neighbourhood, a bad man is a *bed-men*; like *i*, *ex.*, Jinary for January, *kin* for *can*; when long pronounced short, *ex*, *bar*, and *dar* for bare and dare; long when it should be short, *ex.*, na(y)sty, na(y)tural, ba(y)rn; in some words *a* has the sound of short *o*, *ex.*, in squab, waddle, wash, swamp, want, wasp. In Suffolk, sand is often sation. In our best dramatists it frequently transpires. 'This was the most unkindest cut of all,' is the language of Mark Anthony over Cæsar. Multiplied negatives distinguish us; nonullus and necnon would only give force to our nobody and no. But at least, I have never heard quite so full a series as is attributed to the metropolitan citizen:—'Has nobody seen nothing of never a hat nowhere not their own?' Greek admits of double negatives, and so does French; '*Je ne sçai pas.*'"

* In Old Frisian *a* corresponds to *eä* Ang.-Sax. as *dad*, *dead*, *stram*, *stream*; *e* corresponds to A. S. *á* as Fr. *eth*, *teken*, A. S. *ath*, *tacen*, Eng. *oath*, *taken*; —*e* to *ea* and *æ* A. S.; *i* to *eo*; and *já*, *ju*, to *eo*; *dz* to *cg*; *tz*, *ts*, *sz*, *sth*, to *c* or *ce*; *ch*, to *h*, A. S.

† 'In some families a sort of semi-grunt or straining prevails on the most common occasions. I have heard a young person, in reply to 'what's o'clock?' deliver 'half-past eleven' in a tone denoting as much unhappiness and distress, as might have sufficed had it been the precise moment fixed on for the amputation of a finger or the extraction of a tooth—though the party was in perfect health, and nothing was in fact meant more than met the ear in the ordinary power of the words.—*Moor*

called *sond*, *land*, *lond*; in some words, when *a* is followed by *r*, the *r* is dropped, *ex.* in *harsh*, *marsh*, *scarce*, &c.*

The vowel *e* has only two sounds, long as in *equal*, short as in *bed*. Short *e* is often mispronounced as short *a*, *ex.* in *merchant*, *sermon*, *errand*, *vermin*, *temper*, &c.; short *e* is given as short *i*, *ex.* in *yet*, *men*, *ever*, *yes*, *hen*, *seldom*, *tremble*, &c.; short *e* as short *u*, in *fellow*, *mellow*, *elbow*, *better*, *letter*, &c. *I* has but two sounds, long as in *abide*, short as in *bid*; in *Suffolk*, short *i* is spoken as short *e*, in *pit*, *silver*, *bid*, *mill*, *cistern*.†

O is long as in *mode*, short as in *modern*; short *o* here is given as short *a*, in *slop*, *drop*, *soft*, *hornet*, *morning*, *Norfolk*, &c.; long *o* is given as short *oo* (as in *foot*) in *strove*, *drove*, &c.; short *o* becomes short *u* in *font*, *front*, &c.‡

U is turned to open *a* in *burst*, *curse*, *nurse*, &c.; short *u* is changed to short *e*, in *shut*, *shutter*, &c., a very common pronunciation in *Suffolk* and *east Norfolk*.§

Mispronunciation of diphthongs: *ex.*, *ea* like *i* in *head*, *heaven*, *breast*, *thread*, &c.; like short *u* in *feather*, *weather*, *measure*, *pleasure*; like short *a* in *earnest*, *learn*, *early*, &c.; like long *a* in *deal*, *beard*, *earth*, *bean*, *search*, &c.; like long *e* in *deaf*, *endeavour*, *spread*, *dead*, &c.; *ei* like open *a* in *either*, *neither*, &c.; *ie* like short *i* in *friend*, *field*, *yield*, &c.; *oi* like long *i* in *boil*, *join*, *poison*, *point*, *soil*, &c.; *oo* long *u* as in *fool*, *spoon*,

* Thus *Spenser* has *wex* for *wax*; *Wickliffe*, *geder* for *gather*; *Chaucer*, *ketch* for *catch*, and *lest* for *last*; *esh*, the *ash tree*, is the *Ang.-Sax. esc*; *grass* is from *gres*, *black* from *blec*. *Capgrave's Chronicle* (*Lynn*, 1464) has *wex*, *gres*, *fer* for *far*; *wetch* for *watch*; *ex* for *axe*, and abounds in illustrations of the various phonetic peculiarities, noted by *Mr. Forby* in the nineteenth century.

† *Ben Johnson* has *marchant*; *Piers Plowman*, *sahlle* for *settle*; *Tusser*, *Wickliffe*, and *Chaucer* *than* for *then*; the first word of the *Canterbury Tales* is *whanne*. *Tusser* has *sildom* and *together*; *Wickliffe*, *togidre*. *Yet* is the *Ang.-Sax. git*; *kettle*, *cytil*.

Chaucer has *hed* and *melle* for *hid* and *mill*. *Milk* is the *Dan. melk*, *bed* and *pet* are *Ang.-Sax.* for *bid* and *pit*.

‡ *From* is the *Ang.-Sax. fram*; *morning*, *Ang.-Sax. margene*. *Chaucer* has *shet*, *Wickliffe* narrows it still more.

§ In *Etymology*, *Voltaire* remarks the vowels go for nothing, being pronounced different in different districts.

¶ "There appears a disposition, in certain of the more Anglo-Saxon parts of *England*, to turn short *a* into short *e*, as *bed* for *bad*. They have their authority in some of the oldest writers in the language. I have never heard *bad* so pronounced; but *gether* for *gather*, is common, and is brought from our *English* ancestors, who took it from a very remote source. *A* is also changed in *calf*, as *keaff*, in *care*, as *keer*, and sometimes *ker*; *chair* is called *cheer*; rather, *ruther*; farther, *further* and *furder*; *marsh*, *mash*; *harsh*, *hash*; *scarce*, *scurce*. All these peculiarities in the use of *a* are common in parts of *England*, and we have preserved them. *E* in several words becomes *a*, as *marchant*, *sarman*, *arrand*, *varmin*; *yaller*, for *yellow*. The diphthong *ea* is made *a* in some cases: *arnest*, for *earnest*; *larn*, for *learn*; *earth* becomes *airth*; *deaf*, *deef*. *Suffolk* and *Norfolk* are the portions of the mother country to which we are indebted for these seeming oddities, though really ancient modes of speaking.—*Elwyn's Americanisms*.

goose, soon,* &c. ; like short *u* in hood, wood, wool, foot, &c. ; *ou* and *ow* have a peculiar sound, only possible to be emitted by a native East Anglian, or an old he-cat, somewhat like *au-w*,† with a broad twanging sound, in ought, low, dough, mow, soul, &c. ; given narrower, in power, sour, devour, shower, our, &c. ; acuter still, like long *u* in tube, in cow, sow, plow, now, crowd, proud, &c. ; and like short *u* of mud, in could, would, tough, rough, &c.

F is occasionally used for *v* ; *g* ending a medial syllable, and followed by a vowel is added to the next syllable, as in brin-*g*-ing, flin-*g*-ing ; *l* is often dropped in words like old, cold, told, sold ; *r* is added to words ending in certain vowels and diphthongs, *ex.*, "Set the window-*r* open," "Law-*r* and justice." Aspirated mutes are smoothed down, thus when *th* is followed by *r* the *h* is dropped, as in throat, thread, through : *w* and *v* are often interchanged, *w* being used for *v* by the purely rustic class, and *v* for *w* by those whose diction has been polished by a town breeding. Words are also sibilated by the prefix of *s* and *st*.

For almost every East Anglian peculiarity, especially its narrowness and tenuity of enunciation, Mr. Forby finds ample warrant and precedents in our best old authors, as Wycliffe, Chaucer, Spenser, Tusser, Sir Thomns More, and Skelton. He denies that the vulgar fabricate language for their own particular use. Of every vernacular speech he maintains that 'its forms be they as many and various as they may, are all in substance, remnants and derivatives of the language of past ages, which were at some time or other in common use ; though, in long process of time, they may have become only locally used and understood.'‡

* The Percy Ballads have *file* for foil, *spyllt* for spoiled. Tusser has the latter. Wickliffe *destric* for *destroy*. To *soil* is the Ang.-Sax. *besylan*.

Cule and *sune* appear in the Percy Ballads. To stoop is the Ang.-Sax. *stupian*. Tusser has *fut* and *wil*. *Ruff* is Old English for roof. Wool is the Ang.-Sax. *wul* ; and woman, Ang.-Sax. *wuman*. *Toke*, *none*, and *rome* are common old spellings for took, noon, room.

The substitution of the acute *u* for *oo*, Major Moor declares to be the most striking peculiarity of the Suffolk pronunciation.

† "Turning one syllable into two gives a peculiarity to the dialect. Foot, good, coat, book, are all thus lengthened by the crowd ; but the dissyllable demands a bred and born man to utter it—while I can only compare the expansion to that of a heated bar of iron indisputably as imperceptibly increased."—R. *Winter Hamilton*.

‡ "The Patois of a language is seldom its deterioration. It is a prior state, which circumstances have induced and enabled some favoured orders to desert. If it be a residuum, the raciness of the juice is in it : it is the experiment in its base ; it is wine on the lees."—R. W. *Hamilton*.

Among dialectic peculiarities which we have noticed within the last few years at Yarmouth and its immediate neighbourhood, the following may be cited. Amongst the beachmen, *w* for *v*, wessels, visitors ; *t* for *th*, and a confusion of the singular and plural of articles and pronouns ; plural terminations of verbs used with pronouns in the singular number, and *vice versa*, as *he go*, *she say*, *they says*, *he du* (do). The pronunciation of this last word is the

The extent to which local dialects are influenced by external circumstances and climatic conditions, has hitherto been but slightly investigated. It has been impossible for writers on language to overlook this, one of its most curious features, lying within the domains of the physical, the ethnographical branch of the science, but a passing glance is all that has been generally bestowed upon the subject. In language, the inward sensations and outward conditions, the mutual action and reaction of mind and body are equally mirrored; and its designative powers are called into continued exercise to supply them with an adequate vocal interpretation in utterances in which the principle of imitation universally and instinctively prevails. Thus in the nomenclature of the strong emotions of the soul,—anger, terror, alarm, wrath, hatred, revenge,—words of harsh import are unconsciously clothed in quick, rough, abrupt accents; whilst sweet, soothing, gentle, dulcet, loving sensations breathe in their outward phrases the pervading feelings that prevail within. The same harmonious consonance is impressed upon the mental and bodily associations derived from climate and outward circumstance. There is a rude energetic power in the speech of the dwellers of the North, who, amid the sublimer features of nature, wrestle with her storms and tempests for a bare, but hardy existence, reflected in its harsh, consonantal, rugged syllables, whilst the soft, liquid vowelled language, the musical cadences, of the races who inhabit the sunny climes of the South, breathe of the balmy air, the *dolce far niente* of those favoured regions.

When we descend from the broad characteristics of languages, from such as those which distinguish the Teutonic and Scandinavian from the Romance languages, to the consideration of the causes which originate *their* divergence into dialects marked by noticeable differences of articulation and enunciation, the task of explanation becomes more difficult. What silent, subtle influences have been at work to create the wide departure of accent in the two sister tongues, the Swedish and Danish—the former as remarkable for a clear and distinct, as the latter is for a confused inarticulate utterance. If the Anglo-Saxon element which has been preserved in our modern English, in words spelt alike, was also pronounced formerly as it is now, what gave rise to the marked divergence of its articulation,* as expressed in the ortho-shibboleth by which a native may be almost invariably detected. Common abbreviations are phrases like ‘He don’t come to *mine* now,’ for ‘He does not come to my house now. Yarmouth is my na-tive. When grass runs short, the local phrase, given in a plaintive recitative, is, ‘The pasture isn’t kind to the cattle now.’

* “American philologists assert that fewer local peculiarities of form and articulation exist throughout the extent of their vast territories than on the narrow soil of Great Britain. Some of their local differences are accounted for by the emigration of considerable bodies of English people from the same

graphy which has come down to us, from that of the contemporaneous Teutonic dialect? Was it originally distinct from them, or have both been undergoing continual change? What occasioned in France that considerable modification in terminations and pronunciation of its Latin-derived language? Had, as has been conjectured by philologists, the native Keltic a material influence in either of the two last instanced?

Our organs of speech are of the most delicate formation, highly sensitive and peculiarly liable to be affected by the most trifling circumstances. Several centuries ago, the bearings this had upon dialect was remarked by Olaus Borichius, a Northern writer.

"The organs of speech being many, as the lungs, thorax, thachea, &c., it is impossible that they should not be affected by the difference of climate, and degenerate into some corruption; in some places from heat, in others from cold, moisture, dryness, and other peculiarities of situation. The cause of this diversity is not in parents alone, but in meat, drink, water, and situation; for when all these are of a more dense nature, they for the most part make the senses duller, the organs heavier, and the tongue more slow; when more refined, they produce contrary effects. Hence we find that those people who are subjected to the influences of northern climates, incline to hard, slow, and rough dialects; and, on the other hand, that others, who verge towards the south, have a strong tendency to a softer, and a more rapid way of speaking."

A variety of causes operate to create divergences between the colloquial speech of town and country. The one is chiefly employed indoors; the other, in the open air. The latter becomes louder and slower in its utterances. Out-door labourers will maintain a conversation at a distance of thirty or forty yards apart, without attempting to approach nearer, often in wind and rain—by means of a high pitched recitative. The habit of loud talking, like that acquired by those who have to converse habitually with deaf people, becomes unconsciously predominant, and a continued rise and fall of the voice becomes the habit rather than a modulation at a sustained moderate pitch. Dialectic utterance is a faithful interpreter of the varied conditions of human existence, whilst the life of cities, restless, energetic, filled with life and movement, is reflected in its quick, abrupt, decisive phrases; so in the more languid existence of the country, vicinity, who keeping together have perpetuated their native dialect. This is observable in Eastern Virginia and S.E. Massachusetts. In America, from the universal acquirement of the habit of reading, spoken language assimilates more closely to written than with us. Americans are said to drawl their words by protracting the vowels, and giving to every syllable a distinct enunciation, whilst Englishmen are charged by foreign satirists with slurring them over, sputtering out one half of a word and swallowing the other. The American mode of articulation is ascribed by their writers to climatic influences. Though their winters are severer, their flora belongs to a more southern type than that of England, and in Southern latitudes articulation is more distinct than in Northern, as is shewn in the pronunciation of Spanish, Italian, and Turkish as compared with English, Danish and German. The changes which external physical causes arising from climate and mode of life are producing in the Anglo-American, besides affecting the delicate organs of articulation, are said to be evidenced still more palpably in his handwriting, which has a marked difference from English script."—*Marsh*.

where thought and action move more slowly, we find a diphthongal character of vowels, a drawing hesitancy of enunciation.

The number of literary examples of the Anglo-Saxon and early English of East Anglia, Mercia and Northumberland, hitherto brought to light, is but scanty. Succumbing to the ascendancy gained by the Southern or West Saxon dialect in the Court and seminaries of our Saxon rulers, the Anglian MSS. sustained further injury from the frequent transcription customary in that era, transcriptions which often involved modifications of the phraseology into the particular dialect familiar to the copyist; a process which has left comparatively little reliable evidence of the dialectic differences which prevailed in the Saxon epoch.* There was a period in that epoch when the Angles of the East coast were abreast, if not in advance of their Saxon neighbours, not merely in material prosperity, in commercial enterprise and agricultural skill; but in the arts, in the learning and literature cultivated in the precincts of their stately monasteries. But their territory lay open and temptingly exposed to the ravages of the Northern piratical hordes. Repeatedly devastated by these pagan invaders, abandoned for a time to the Danes, its political power died out, the records of its literary genius perished, and the Anglian gave way to the domination of the language of Wessex.

What amount of change our rustic dialects have undergone in the course of centuries can only be vaguely computed. If we are to adopt East Anglia as a standard of estimate, drawing our conclusions from a comparison of its earliest extant literature with its present archaic grammatical constructions, colloquial idioms, and pronunciation, the local dialect would seem to have preserved its original characteristics with a rare fidelity.† If we accept the Arundel MS. (cited by Sir F. Madden, *see note, page 462*) as a genuine specimen of Kentish dialect in the fourteenth century, there has been in that district a very wide departure within a period comparatively modern. The enquiry is one demanding much minute and patient enquiry, and though full of interest still awaiting a more complete research than has yet been attempted.

Towards a comparison of the Anglian dialects of the early English period (the 13th to the 15th centuries), with their present condition,

* "It must be remembered that Anglo-Saxon also had not only its local dialects, but its general colloquial forms, which, in all probability, differed very widely from the written tongue. Anglo-Saxon English is derived not wholly from the Anglo-Saxon of books, which alone is known to us; but, in a great measure, no doubt, from a spoken tongue, that has now utterly perished, except so far as it has lived on, first in the mouths, and then in the literature of the modern English people."—*Marsh.*

† This could probably be in no way more strikingly shewn than by a comparison of the peculiarities of the language employed by Capgrave, in his *Chronicle*, written at Lynn, *Circa*, 1464, with those noted down in East Anglia by Forby, nearly four centuries later. They are almost all identical. See Hingeston's Glossary to Capgrave.

some excellent materials have recently been made available. In 1863, an edition of the *Pricke of Conscience*, a Northumbrian poem, the work of *Richard Rolle, de Hampole*, a Priory near Doncaster, and written in the fourteenth century, was published by Mr. R. Morris, who has made the investigation of our early dialects as exhibited in their literary remains his special study. By collating this with the invaluable repertory of early East Anglian, the *Promptorium Parvulorum*, enriched in Mr. Way's edition with admirable illustrative notes, and with the *Chronicle*, written a century later by *Capgrave*, an insight is attainable into a number of the affinities and divergences of the East Anglian, and its twin sister, the North Anglian, or Anglian proper. In this latter, the influence of the Scandinavian in the Vocabulary and Grammar appears more predominant. Mr. Morris has attached an introduction and glossary to the text of *Hampole*, devoted principally to an examination of the early differences existing between the Northumbrian and the Scottish. Whilst drawing out the Norse element in the former he has omitted any notice of the Keltic element latent in the Scotch, and which would probably account for several of its peculiarities. Mr. Morris has also noted some of the variations of the Northumbrian from the Southern dialects. It is to be regretted that these notices have not been extended also to those which characterise the dialect of East Anglia. Greater facilities for this task will exist when that almost unfathomed chasm, the Lincolnshire dialect, and its early literature, shall have been bridged over, a work likely at no distant period to be carried out.

Mr. Morris notices the confusion of dialect in our early MSS involved by that continual transcription necessitated until the invention of printing. Of ten existing MS. of the *Pricke of Conscience* in the British Museum, six have been adapted by translation of idioms more or less skilfully performed to the Southern, Western and Midland dialects.

The current of change in our dialects appears to have set *northwardly*. In the latter half of the 14th century, the Northumbrian is found yielding to the influence of the Southern dialects, and its *bath*, *mare*, *ma*, *na*, *ar* and *twa* have become both, *more*, *mo*, *no*, or *two*. Even *a* in the preterites *wrang* and *sang* becomes *o* in *wrong* and *song*.

Very little difference exists in the literary documents of the 14th and 15th centuries between the Scottish and North English dialect. In Grammar and vocabulary the idioms N and S of the Tweed correspond. Among orthographical differences are the following. The Scot. has *icht*, *echt*, *ocht*, *acht*, *euch*, for the N. E. *ight*, *eght*, *oght*, *aght*, *ogh*. (In these instances the Scot. dialect seems to have imbibed Gaelic influences, rejecting the hard guttural Teutonic *gh*.) Vowel differences consist in the Scot. use of *a* for the N. Eng. *e*, as *warld* for *world*; *e* for *a*; *wes* for *was*; *o* for *a*, *mony* for *many*; *u* for *o*; *cluke* for *cloke*; *ruse* for *rose*, (boast) *gif* for *yf*; the Fris. *jef*; A. S. *gif*.

Sic is Scottish, perhaps a contracted form of *slike*, the latter term marking a border dialect, and is the Isl. *slik*, such, the like; A. S. *swilk*; *swile* is the usual early Yorkshire form. Dropping the *l* as in this instance became later very common among Scottish writers.

Northumbrian Grammar,—The genitive singular ends in *es*, *s*; occasionally

in *is*, *ys*, as in Scotch. The plural number ends in *es*, *s*. Words ending in *yng*, *ing* (derived from verbs) are substantives not participles. Adjectives have no plural sign, unless the *e* in *hise* and *thise* before plural nouns, be the final *e* frequently employed for the purpose in contemporary Southern English.

Such phrases as *wel*, *very*, *al*, quite all, are modelled from the Isl. *vel*; *all*. Many adjectives are derived from nouns by adding *in*, *en*, as *boken lare*, *book learning*. The A.S. prefix *ge* never occurs in Northumbrian M.S. of the 13th and 14th centuries, whereas the Southern dialects retain it to a late period. The Scand. *at*, to, sign of the infinitive is not uncommon, as 'at drink, at eat,' Scot. writers use *till*.

To this Northern dialect we owe the preservation of the passive participle in *en*, *n*; the tendency of the South and West being to drop them. Ex., *holpen*, *thrusten*, *stolen*, *chosen*, &c. It had formerly the adverbs of Scand. origin *hethen*, *thethen*, *whethen*, hence, thence, whence. The Scot. has the O. Norse adverbial termination *gale*. The Northumbrian has the prepositions of Norse origin, *fra*, from; *at*, to; *til*, to; *amell*, among; *emid*, amid. The most striking peculiarity from the latter half of the 13th to the end of the 14th century is the preservation of the long *a* in A. S. words, which the Southern dialects changed into a long *o*; ex., *ald*, old; *bane*, bone; *hame*, home; *lang*, long, &c. Some of these North words gradually got further South where they underwent the vowel change.

The Northumbrian preferred the Scand. guttural *k* to the softer sound of *ch*. This accounts for many double forms still in use as *poke* and *pouch*; *skirt*, and *shirt*; *brekes*, *breeches*; *blink*, *blench*; *kirk*, *church*.

There are grounds for believing that when our early MS come to be more fully explored, much ampler illustrations than exist at present of the Anglian dialect will be discovered. Thirty years ago, in his *History of English Rhythms*, Dr. Guest remarked that the number of MSS. written about A. D. 1300, which, judging from dialect and other circumstances, must be referred to Lincolnshire or the neighbouring shires, is singularly great.

Other characteristic differences of our Northern and Southern Dialects, based on a study of early English records, have been recently made the subject of a paper read before the Philological Society, by Mr. R. Morris. He gives three broad divisions; North, Mid, and South, distinguished as Anglian, Mercian, West Saxon; the Midland being the least distinctive, as presenting no uniform type, capable of subdivisions, and reflecting the peculiarities of both North and South.

* A convenient test of dialect in the Early English period (A. D. 1250-1350), is the inflexion of the verb in the plural number, present tense of the indicative mood. The Northumbrian dialect takes *es* (*s*) for all persons of the present plural, indicative. The Midland dialect takes *en* (*n*) for all persons of the present plural, indicative.*

The Southern dialect takes *eth* for all persons of the present plural indicative. The Midland presents no uniform type. The Southern

* The *en* which terminated the plural of verbs, especially in the past tense, not, indeed, in the Anglo-Saxon, but in the English from Chaucer's time to Spenser's is still found in Derbyshire, and other counties bordering on the Northern. At a vestry-meeting in Derbyshire, a churchwarden asks 'What sayen you to this affair?' Answer 'Why we tellen them that we thinken otherwise; and they talken nonsense.'—*London Quarterly* No. 29.

dialect prefers the soft sound of *ch* to that of *k*, which is found also in the older forms of the language. In Wiltshire and Devonshire, we may still hear *blatch*, black; *pritch*, prick; and *putch*, pick. *Which, such, each*, are Southern, *whilk, swilk*, and *ilk*, Northern forms. Adverbs in the Southern dialect end in *liche*; in the Northern in *like* or *ly*. The Southern, *home, lofe, one*, become *hame, lafe, ane* in the North. The South prefers *can, hond, lond, mon, hong, stond, plont, &c.*, for *can, hand, land, hang, stand, plant*. Where the South has *cle, sle, stre, ze*, the North has *cla, claw, slay, stra, straw, yha, yea*. Compare also the Southern forms, *clei, eye, eizt, hei, kei, grein*, with the Northern *clay, agh (awe), agh (eight), hay, kay (key), grain, &c.* In the modern dialect of Sussex we find *fleg, reg, heng*, for *flag, rag, hang*. Such forms were common to the Old Frisian, and to the old Kentish of the fourteenth century, as *blest, blast, creft, craft, epple, apple, gled, glad, lest, last, scrape, scrape, &c.* In the present dialects of the South and West, *u* frequently occurs for *i*, a usage found in the Southern writers of the fourteenth century. The Old Kentish deviates by substituting an *e* for the Southern *u*, and the Northern *i*, as *hell, hulle, hill; kende, kunde, kind; mende, munde, mind; pet, put, pit*. So we also find *brenge, bring; gelt, guilt; ken, kin; keas, kiss; melle, mill; prede, pride, &c.* This usage corresponds to the Old Frisian. In modern Kentish we hear *knet, knit; meece, mice; melk, milk*. The Southern form *eo* for *e*, ex., *breoste, creope, cheose*, corresponds to the Northern *breste, crepe, chese*. The Old Kentish substitutes *ie, ye*, for *eo*, as *bryest, cryepe, chiese*.

In the Southern dialect the genitive of feminine nouns is denoted by a final *e*, as *soule fode*, food of the soul. The Northern preferred *es* as the possessive case for nouns of all genders. The genitive plural ending *ene, en* went out of use in the North before the 13th century, but was retained in the South until a very late period; eg. *apostlene veet*, the feet of the apostles. The adjective *the* in the North was uninflected, in the South it retained many of the older inflections. In the Northern dialect very few plurals in *en* are found—about four at the most; while in a Southern work as late as 1349 we find no less than fifty.

In the North, the Southern pronouns *Ich, I; Ha, he; Heo, hi; she; Hi, they; Heore, their; Heorm them*, were unknown; whilst Southern writers never used *Ik, I; sho, she; thair, their; tham, them*. Ours, yours, thairs, are N forms corresponding to the S. *oure, youre, heore*;—*ourn, yourn, and herun* are Midland varieties. The Southern numerals, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth, &c., are *sevethe, eighthe, neogethe, nithe, tithe, &c.* Instead of *th*, the Northern dialect prefers *nd*, ex., *sevend, aghtend, &c.*, agreeing with the Danish forms. The Old Kentish has also *sevende, eightende, &c.*, which are due to Frisian influence.

Peculiarities of verbs in the South.—A fondness for the termination *th*, as *comth, slepth*, for *cometh, sleepeth*. Preterite plurals in *e*, *he nom, he took; hi nome, they took*. The prefix *y* as *yplayed, ynomed, still preserved*, as *ayeat, eaten; abroke, broken*. The infinitive mood ended in *e* or *en*; the gerundial infinitive in *e* or *ene*. Infinitives in *ie* or *y*, as *lovie, lovy, hopy, &c.*, for *love, hope*, [still retained in the West of England, see page 501] The use of the verbal prefixes *an* or *a*, *at, of*, ex., *awake, afeare, aginne, at-stonde, of-go, of-sake, with-hold, &c.* In the South, active participles ended in *inde*, the North adopted the Scandinavian *ande*; ex., *lovande, loving*. The Northumbrian has a large Norse element. It would be in vain to look for such words in the Southern dialect as *rose, boast; hething, scorn; flet, remove; strut, strife; brathe, anger; onfall, attack; wathe, danger; skulk, turk, ransak, merk (dark), ugly, huge, scold, &c.*

The similarity which struck Major Moor, when compiling his Suffolk Glossary between the provincialisms of East Anglia and those of Scotland, has attracted the attention of our latest writers on philology, amongst others of a writer in the *North British*

Review, May, 1864, on the *Old Anglo-Scottish Dialects*. Want of space compels us in this, as in previous quotations, to condense very briefly and crudely the gist of the reviewer's remarks, based upon Mr. Morris' introductory notice of the Northern dialects prefixed to his edition of the *Pricke of Conscience*. The reviewer supplements the notices of the former on the early variations of the North Anglian and Scottish dialects, by an examination of the differences existing at the same period between the dialects of the Eastern and Western districts of England. The writer admits in the outset that

"The old Scottish language of our forefathers is hastening to decay; probably, before the close of the century, its use and a knowledge of it may be confined to the humblest classes, or to the most retired districts of our native land. A hundred years ago, it was freely current among the better ranks of society, and at the beginning of this century it was the common language of our nurseries, and was intelligible to every one. Now, our nursemaids and nursery governesses speak nothing but a sort of school English; our sons and daughters conclude their education beyond the Tweed; and except by special study, are unable to appreciate either Burns or Ramsay. Let us hope, if doomed to languish and die, it may gain that honour which attends the departed, that reverence which accompanies antiquity. It must ever interest Scotchmen, as being the true reflex of the national character, an indispensable key to the national history."

What is this Scottish tongue, as to its elements and its affinities to other dialects? The answer is simple. It is but another form of English; the two are sister dialects of one and the same language. A comparison of the early literature of the two countries shows a remarkable correspondence between the Scottish and the Old English of the East of England, as distinguished in its grammatical forms from the dialects of the South and West. An examination of early English writings convince us that in the 13th and 14th centuries, the East coast of Britain, from Essex northward to the Forth, was occupied by a population substantially the same in blood, and with insignificant local varieties speaking throughout its whole extent one and the same Anglo-Norman tongue, of a character sufficiently distinct from the English of Chaucer and the other Southern and Western writers of England, to deserve the name of a separate dialect or language.

To track the various and intricate differences of old or existing dialects, with their several local limits at successive periods, is a task of difficulty. Among materials that exist favourable for purposes of comparison, are the *Chronicles* of Robert of Gloucester and Robert de Brunne, the latter, a monk of Sixhill, Mid-Lincolnshire. Both wrote within half a century of each other, about A. D. 1300, and their productions illustrate the then existing lingual differences of East and West.

In De Brunne, an absence of the prefix *y* or *i* (the Sax. *ge*); and in Robert of Gloucester, its frequent occurrence, are noticeable.

In De Brunne, the use of *they*, *their*, *them*, as plural of the third personal pronoun, instead of the proper and original plural of *he*, being *hi*, *hire*, *hem*, which are found in Robert of Gloucester.

The absence or rarity in the Lincolnshire Chronicle of the final *n* in the infinitive and other inflections of verbs. The greater rarity of the final *n* in the plurals of nouns, the plural of *brother* e. g. being *brether*, not *brethren*; while *ky* not *kine*, is the plural of *cow*. Also, the absence of the termination *th* in the inflection of verbs, and the substitution of the final *s* instead.

These differences, which have found their way into modern English, are among the most remarkable of those which distinguish the Scottish poet Barbour from the nearly contemporary Chaucer—Barbour's dialect strongly resembling De Brunne's, whilst Chaucer approximates to that of Robert of

Gloucester. Thus the Old Scottish is found at this early period to correspond with the Old English of the East Coast.

From the relative position of the original homes of the Angles and Saxons, the dialect of the former would more nearly approximate to that of their neighbours, the Norsemen; and that of the Saxons to that of the Platt Deutschen, who dwelt contiguous; and during the Danish invasion the Scandinavian tendencies existing in the Anglian dialect, would probably receive a certain impulse.

The most characteristic peculiarities of Scandinavian inflection seem never to have been imported into the Anglian or Anglo-Norman dialects. In the Anglian occurs that guttural *ch* or *gh* which the Scandinavian languages reject. The extent to which these are retained in the Scottish dialect, as *nicht, dochter, aucht*, disprove the theory of a Scandinavian origin. They would have in that case appeared as *natt, dottir, attä*.

Amongst other Anglian peculiarities, we find as we proceed North, *o* freely exchanged for *a*, the long Saxon *oa* or *oe* passes into the Scot. *ai* or *ae*. This last is ridiculed by Chaucer in his Reeve's Tale.

Early Northumbrian poems show the frequent use of *quh* or *qu* for *wh*, a usage so familiar in Scottish.

The writer sums up—"It is obvious that the dialects which prevailed from East Anglia to the Forth, and latterly, even to the Moray Firth, are those which are most nearly allied, and that the study of them in their whole extent, is the best and only true way of understanding any one of them. Without seeking to draw invidious comparisons, we cannot help remembering how much these Eastern districts have in every way contributed to the prosperity of England, and the formation of English character. Their inhabitants have been, from the earliest times, remarkable for untiring energy and industry, as well as for practical prudence and good sense. They have carried out in the highest perfection on their own ground, the two concurring and yet contrasted pursuits of agriculture and seamanship, the main supports for so many centuries of England's greatness; their genius and taste pre-eminently appeared in their early architecture and poetry; and their language, though it could not supersede, has insensibly modified the forms of the Southern and Midland dialects, and has communicated much of that force, compactness, and precision for which classical English is now remarkable.

Dr. Guest observes, that "as the Anglian dialect was retreating northwards, two vigorous efforts were made to fix it as a literary language; the first, in the thirteenth century, by the men of Lincolnshire—the same whose taste and genius yet live in their glorious churches; and a second in the fifteenth century by the men of Lothian." We find here indicated the history and progress of the Anglian speech. Reduced gradually in England to the position of a provincial dialect, it had still a refuge in the Scottish Lowlands, and flourished for the space of more than two hundred years as the language of the Court and clergy, as well as of a large portion of the common people of an important and independent kingdom. The Scottish is thus the Anglian tongue, not neglected and left to run wild, like flowers in a deserted garden, but enclosed, cultivated, and watered by courtly favour and the care of learned men. This Scottish dialect, however, received its death-blow at the Reformation. The circulation of the English Scriptures undermined its ascendancy, and no Scottish Bible was ever authorised. Knox and his followers were accused of Anglicizing in their language as well as in their politics; and Ninian Winzet, the Popish antagonist of Knox, was among the last who wrote the ancient Scottish in its primitive purity.

We close this Introduction to our Glossary by a collocation of the most striking prevalent departures of our existing dialects from the modern standard English.

In his *Essay on English Ethnography*, Dr. Donaldson illustrates

by a series of comparisons, the most marked divergences existing at the present day between our Southern and Eastern dialects.

"We will here only touch on a few prominent distinctions which we observed while residing at different times in Dorsetshire, which represents the most distinctly Saxon part of the old kingdom of Wessex, and in Suffolk, which belongs to that part of East Anglia where the Anglian element was purest. Now one of the most striking distinctions which we observed was the tendency in the former dialect, not only to retain the broad *a*, but even to substitute it for *o* in certain cases, as before an *r*. Thus, the country people always said *Darset*, *Gearge*, *starm*, &c. On the contrary, it is a marked peculiarity of the Anglian dialects to substitute *o* for *a*. Thus they say *lond*, *mon*, *stond*, &c., for land, men, stand. This is regular Frisian. Again, the Southern English retains as far as it can the sound *e* and *ee*, which, in Suffolk, at all events, are in most cases turned into *i*. The South Saxon says 'I *geez*,' the East Anglian 'I *guiss*.' The South Saxons give you the full benefit of *r*, which the East Anglians prefer to drop before another consonant. We heard of *parrrudges* and *shurrrs* in Dorsetshire, but the gamekeepers of Suffolk were acquainted only with *partridges*; the parish clerks talked of the *chutch potch*; and the laundresses got up our *shulls*. And this was still more striking when the words were intoned. In one church in Dorsetshire a volunteer choir insisted on beginning the service by chanting 'Rrend yourr hearrrts, and not yourr garrments,' but in Suffolk no musical exigencies could extract a hirriant syllable. The South Saxon dialects retain their hard *g*, but the Angles give us palatal sounds when they can, as in *aitchorn* for *acorn*, *muckinja* for *muckender*, 'a handkerchief,' *coksedge* for *cocks heads*, *tchem* for *team*, and often, like the Low-Germans of the Continent, substitute *y* for *g* or *h*; thus *yate* is pronounced for *gate* and *yowl* for *howl*, and *y* is sometimes prefixed arbitrarily, as in *yearth* for *earth*, *yebble* for *able*, and *yow* for *ewe*. In the South there is a greater tendency to the use of weak forms of verbs and auxiliary adjuncts, whereas in Anglian districts we have a retention of the genuine perfects. A Dorsetshire man would say, 'he did yield 'nself up,' but in Suffolk this would be 'a yelt' a'self up.' The fondness for analogous affixes in East Anglia is often carried too far. There is a wonderful superfluity in the Suffolk superlatives: we have not only *dociliseest*, *lisseest*, and *worseest*, but even superlatives for verbs, as *eatenest* and *lastenest* for 'most devouring,' and 'most durable.'

Of the dialect of Sussex, an enthusiastic student of language, the late Rev. R. Winter Hamilton, of Leeds, who resided for a time within its borders, remarked that it was the most coarse in its vulgar tongue of counties, as London is of cities. Its main characteristics are noticed by Mr. W. Durrant Cooper, in the preface to his *Provincialisms of Sussex*.

"Throughout the county the Saxon plural is not unfrequently used, especially in words ending in *st*, as *blastes*, *postes*, *ghostes*. Hasp, clasp, wasp, are transposed into *hapse* (Sax. *haeps*) *clapse*, *wapse* (Sax. *waeps*), neck, *nick*, throat, *throtle* (Sax. *throt*), choak, *chock*. Earth, from *eard*, (Sax.) to plough, (in Ang.-Sax. books, written *e-orth*), is still correctly pronounced *e-arth*. Barn is *bearn*, the exact Ang.-Sax. *bærn*. Gate is called like the A. S. *ge-at*, house as in A. S. *huss*. Oil is correctly called *œl*; the elder retains its Sax. name *ellar*, and laths, *lats*: *oi* is generally pronounced *i*, as *boil*, *bile*, *spoil*, *spile*; *ea* becomes *aw*, as *heath*, *hawth*. In the Eastern Rapes, *th* is sounded as *d* at the beginning of words, as *dis*, *dat*, *dem*, *dese*. *V* becomes *f* as in Kent and Devonshire, as *vlick* for *flick*; and *t* for *ch*, as *fet* for *fetch*. In East Sussex, facing the French coast, many words have a French pronunciation, and the speech is broad and strong, ex., yeast, *yust*, sooner, *soonder*, knew, *knowd*, will, *wool*. In West Sussex, the pronouns *en* or *un* are used for *he* or *it*, *um* for *them*—*her kill'd 'n*, he killed it. In both divisions final *ow* becomes *er*, bellow, *beller*, fallow, *voller*. As in Lancashire and Somerseshire, the adjective ending *ous* is changed into *some*, clamorous, *clamersome*, dubious, *dubersome*. *S* is often

added to *where*; the ending *en* is frequently dropped, *sharp* my knife, for sharpen my knife. *O* is frequently changed into *a*, and *a* into *e*. *Be* is substituted for *am* and *are*.

None of our local dialects possess more literary interest than that of Wessex, which early in the ninth century obtained the supremacy over all the surrounding rival kingdoms of the Heptarchy. Its dialect forms the basis of our written Anglo-Saxon, as cultivated and fostered at the Court of Alfred. Somersetshire may be taken as the centre of the Wessex dialect, and its existing peculiarities are believed to assimilate more nearly to the dominant form of Anglo-Saxon than those of any other locality. They were noted forty years ago by *James Jennings*, a local glossarist. They have been more minutely described in the *Grammar and Glossary* of the *Dorset Dialect* drawn up in 1863, for the Philological Society, by the *Rev. W. Barnes*. Coming from a scholar and poet, who has made it a labour of his life to rescue his native speech from the ignorant charge of vulgarity or corruption, and whose '*Hwomely Rhymes*' will live in our language, enduring witnesses of the treasures of beauty, pathos, and quiet humour latent in its rustic idioms, his monograph has a special value. As the best existing analysis of the characteristics of 'the old speech of the land-folk of the south-west of England, which seems to have come down, with a variation hardly quicker than that of the usual off-wearing of speech forms,' we have thought it advisable to borrow from it a somewhat lengthened abridgement. The inland seat of its Saxon invaders, Cerdic, Cynric, Porta, Stuv, and Wightgar, Mr. Barnes places in the modern Holstein, that of the Angles in Anglen, the modern Duchy of Slesvig, and he adds 'it is not only credible, but most likely, that the Saxons of Holstein and the Angles of Slesvig might speak different forms of the common Teutonic tongue even in Denmark. At the present day, in some of the Friesic and Anglic bailiwicks of Slesvig, Danish is not only but little spoken, but hardly understood. The Danes, though a Teutonic tribe, are of the Scandinavian branch, and their sway and language have come over the homes of our Anglo-Saxon forefathers, since they left it.

The main marks of South Western English, as it differs from the speech forms of the North, even more than from those of Eastern and Middle English are the use of *v* for *f* and *s* for *s*—the retention of the Eng *sh* for the old *sc*, whereas the North has often like the tribe of Benjamin the *s* for *sh*; the article *the* is kept in full, whilst in the N it becomes *t* or *d*; our *en*, the objective case form of *he*, is not I think, found in the N; unlike it, we have the full use of *do* and *did*; For I be, we be, you be, &c., our forms of the Sax.-Eng. verb *Ic beo*, Northmen have I am, or I is, &c.; the affix *a* to the verb, past participle, is a Western mark; we have the later Eng. consonants *ch* *dge*, for the North *k* and *g*.

In vowel sounds, *ea* of bean, clean, lean, becomes dipthongal, as *béan*, *cléan*, *léan*, whilst in Ireland, Norfolk, and East Anglia, it has the sound of *a* in *mate*; ex., 'a hape or a dale of whate.' The Norfolk men are Angles, and, as

truly English, should speak better English than that of us of the under tribe of Saxons in the West; and who knows but that *dale* and *whate* are the sounds of the old *dæl* and *hwæte* of the early English.

For the Eng. *a*, we mostly hold *ea*, bake, cake, made, become, bëake, ceäke, meäde.

The Eng. long *o* becomes *wo*; cold, cwold; fold, vwold; oak, woak. In Norfolk long *o* is *oo*; spook for spoke; in Northumberland *aw*, blaw for blow. *Ow* takes here an *r* sometimes,—hollor for hollow. *Oi* becomes mostly *wot*, as boil, bwoil; spoil, spwoil; whereas in Norfolk *oi* becomes *i*, as boil, bile: spoil, spile. We keep the Eng. *ou* which in the North becomes *oo*. A tendency to diphthongs holds in the Teutonic through all its forms. [Their narrowing is one of the peculiar features of East Anglian.]

Whilst in Dorset, *f* becomes *v*, the usage does not hold in words brought in from non-Teutonic languages, as factory, famine, figure. In Swed., *f* is sounded as *v* at the end of words, and by the same smoothing process the *f* of High Dutch is converted into *v* in Low-Dutch.

Th mostly before *r* becomes *d*, dwat, throat; dreshel, threshold. So in German die, the; tod, death; dank, thank. Conversely, the A. S. *th* in Dorset supersedes the Eng. *d*, as blather, bladder; lather, ladder. In Sussex *th* has given way to *d*—dis, this; dere, there.

There has been either in the new or older forms of speech a metathesis of *s*, with a mute clipping, thus clasp becomes claps; wasp, waps; crisp, crips, &c.

For *s* Eng. Dorset holds the kinsletter *z*, as *s* in High-Dutch becomes *z* in Holland. *S*-headed words of later importation retain the *s* sound in Dorset as in scene, servant, sabbath.

Liquids like *rl* often take *d* between them, as twirl, twirdl, or twirel. So in Norfolk a banner is a bander, as also they say "all mander of colours." *R* before some open and close palate letters is thrown out, as burst, bu'st, furze, vu'zz; force, fwo'ce; and *lm* is sometimes sundered by a vowel, as elm, elem.

Dorset retains a few plurals of nouns ending *en* for *s*, cheesen, housen pleäcen, &c. The West Frisian holds many cases of this plural ending. It is a pity, remarks Mr. Barnes, that this *s* should have been taken in a language that hisses like our own, instead of the good liquid-ending *en*. To ease the horrid cluster of consonants *sts* in plural of *st*-tailed nouns, Dorset often inserts an *e*—coastes for coasts.

Of the personal pronoun *he*, the objective form *him* is in Dorset *en*, the worn form of the Sax.-Eng. *he-ene*, *hine hin*, *en*. Besides the two Eng. demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that*, Dorset has two others, *thease* and *thik* *Thik* is the Sax.-Eng. *tha-ylc* the Scot. *the ilk*; Eng. *thulke*; in Chaucer's time shortened to *thilk*. *Them* the objective of *they* is in Dorset *em* the Sax.-Eng. *hym*. *En* and *em* the A. S. *hine* and *hym* are the Gothic *ina* and *im*.

In Dorset, the verb takes *y* only when absolute, never with an accusative case. 'Can ye zewy?' 'never' Wull ye zewy uptheäse zeäm?' 'How the dog do jumpy.' 'The child do like to whippy.'

Dorset retains what one could wish the Eng. had not lost, an affix augment to the past participle, answering to one in the Sax.-Eng. and German. In German it is *ge*, as *ge-funden*, Dorset a-found, a-lost, a-broke. The Teut. *ge* in the transition into Eng. has been worn away into *y* or *i*, as *y-clep'd*, used by Milton. *Ing* the ending of the active participle and verbal noun is *en*. It is noteworthy that this ending *ing* which is truly Eng. and Teut. is hardly anywhere *ing* in provincial speech. In the North, it is mostly *in* and *an*, in other parts of England *un*.

As the Wessex dialect radiates further West it comes in contact with the Keltic dialect of Wales and Cornwall. Many words give place to those of Keltic derivation. The most noticeable dialectic features are the softening of the hard Teutonic *d* and *dd* into the soft flattened *th*; *w* takes the sound of *oo*; *ch* loses its Teutonic guttural expression in a process of hardening; and *l* is doubled and aspirated.

In his Glossary of *Herefordshire* words, *Sir G. Cornwall Lewis* has some incidental notices of pronunciation, *ir* or *ur* expresses he, she, or it; *as* stands for whom, *the man as I seed*. *I* is inserted before *e* in many words, as *fiern*, *piert*, *tiert* for *tart*, &c. *En* is added as a plural to nouns, as *poplern*, and to adjectives, *tinnen*, made of *tin*.

In *Pembroke*, and the peninsula of *Gower, Glamorganshire*, English idioms prevail over the Welsh. The district was over-run by our Norman invaders, who built its towns, castles, and churches. Higden relates in his *Polychronicon* that a colony of Flemings were transported hither from their settlements in East Anglia in the time of Henry I., by the King's command. The dialect of Gower, specimens of which were published in *Transactions of the Philological Society*, No. 93, and which Latham remarks contains no exclusively Flemish elements—has many words still current in East Anglia, ex., *lipe*, *hommet*, *nipperty*, *planche*, *peert*, *rathe*, *soul*, *sump*, *slade*, &c.*

In marked contrast to the Southern dialects is that of our Northern Counties, retaining the peculiarities noted by Higden in the fourteenth century, broad, harsh, deep-chested, sonorous. Its extremes existing on the Scottish borders gradually fine down from the Northumbrian *burr*, as we advance Southwards; and innumerable gradations of it exist. Its characteristics have been too summarily defined by a writer in the *London Quarterly*—

* 'The Sea Rovers, with infallible instinct, seem to have detected the best harbour in the kingdom, and to have found shelter for their vessels in the floods of the Pembrokeshire coast—the deep land-bound channels of Milford, Haverford, Whiteford and Skerry-fori, and the neighbouring creeks of Wathwick, Littlewick, Oxwick, Helwick, Gellyswick, Mousselwick, Wickhaven and Mugglewick Bay. The dangerous rocks and islands which fringe this coast, likewise bear Norwegian names. Most of the names on the mainland are Keltic, but the neighbouring islands bear Norse names. No less than twenty-four of the headlands on the Pembrokeshire coast are occupied by camps, which we may regard as the beginning of a Scandinavian occupation of the soil.'—*Taylor's Words and Places*.

'These Norse names are only found along the coast of Pembrokeshire, and on the shores of the Haven of Milford. If we go into the interior of South Pembrokeshire, we shall find a number of villages and other names, which do not come from the Norse, and most certainly have no connection with the Welsh. These names are such as St. Elvis, St. Bride's, St. Ismael, St. Florence, St. Dogmel, and many more, evidently derived from the same source. There are in this part of the County two names which we may regard as supplying the needful explanation—the word *Flemingston* at once tells plainly enough where these names have come from, and *Via Flandrica*, which runs along the ridge of the Presleu mountains. The inhabitants of South Pembrokeshire are at this day called Flemings; they are distinct in language, physiognomy, customs, traits of character, and mental habits from the Welsh, who live around them.'—*Eclectic Review*, June, 1864.

The writer in the *Eclectic* remarks on the proportion of Welsh spoken at the present day in Glamorganshire. Along the coast from Cardiff to Swansea English preponderates, but in the interior Welsh is spoken by nine-tenths of the people. In the coal and iron districts, Welsh is almost exclusively the language used. In Merthyr Tydvil, there about forty large places of worship belonging to dissenters; in some thirty-four of these places the services are conducted entirely in Welsh.

"Its departures in pronunciation from standard English consist chiefly in broad vowel sounds. In man the *a* is as long as we make it in father; the *e* in men as ours in there; the *o* in rock like that in rose; whilst contrariwise, a rose is a *rause*; the short *i* is either *ee*, as *peen* for pin; or it sounds *u*, as *wuth*, for with. The sound of *oo* resembles the French *w*, and *ow* is like *ov*. There is no confusion or interchange, as in almost every other part of Britain, between the sounds of *f* and *v*, of *z* and *s*; of *h* aspirate and mute. *R* is always trilled or burred when it occurs, but is never introduced gratuitously at the end of a word. *G* and *n* never receive a hard sound, as in the South and East. *Gh* has always that Teutonic guttural sound which seems to have been utterly lost in the Southern dialects."

In contradiction to the remark last quoted, we find *Mr. Dickenson*, in his *Cumberland Dialect*, observing that *gh* in right, tight, sight, and similar words, was formerly, and even within memory, pronounced *resht*, *tesht*, *seesh*, &c., or by aspirating the *gh*. Other peculiarities of that district are the absence of *ing* in all words of more than one syllable, *in* or *an* being substituted; *ed* is abbreviated to *t*; *by* and *ish* are in frequent use. e.g. *coldly*,* *coldish*, *wetly*, *wettish*. *Ho!* and *Hoo* are common expletives.**

The dialects of our Midland English Counties approach more nearly than any others the modern English standard. Possibly for this reason their Glossaries are so scanty and meagre, and contain so few provincialisms that are strictly indigenous.

In Nature we see vitality proportioned to duration of growth, pithily summed up in the adage "soon ripe, soon rotten." The same law prevails in the world of mind as in that of matter, and the roots of our language the earliest, continue to be the most enduring in wear of existing records of man's habitation of these islands. We are able to trace to-day not merely that individual impress which successive races, commencing more than twenty centuries ago affixed upon its vocabulary and grammatical structure; but also that more subtle and apparently more perishable one of dialect, as understood in its strict definition of 'peculiar style of expression.' In Lancashire the local philologists have latterly detected, and are gradually bringing to light a

* *Mr. Dickenson* has a remark which, if based on careful and accurate observation, has an important bearing on the apparent rapidity and facility with which the Celtic seems to have given way to the Anglo-Saxon.

"A considerable portion of the labouring population on the western side of the county consist of Irishmen and their families, occupied in mining, draining, and other earth works. Notwithstanding this, the Irishisms engrafted on the native dialect are singularly few, if, indeed, any. *Their children reared here acquire the dialect as perfect as the natives, and soon use not a trace of their mother tongue*; and even the parents, in many instances, abandon their own idiom, and learn to use the speech of their adopted country.

It is somewhat different with the Scotch, and the labourers from the borders, who nearly all retain the expressions and the peculiar inflexions of their national speech to their dying day, and some of their descendants are known to retain sufficient to distinguish their nationality over more than one generation."

The absence of a Celtic literature to feed and sustain the colloquial language has acted as a potent aid in its extinction. But is not a tenacity of language a characteristic of the Teutonic race? The Slavonic tribes are gifted with an aptitude for the acquisition of languages. Is this linguistic faculty, which if a great future be in store for the Slavonic races will be a chief instrument, probably accompanied by an instability to retain their own language when transplanted, and does it tend to explain the absence of dialect in Russia remarked by Sir Roderic Murchison? See Note, page 456.

considerable stratum of Keltic. We have nowhere seen the fact noticed, but this Keltic element can be met with cropping out not only in the local idioms, but in their utterance:—in the softening or abrasion of Teut. and Ang.-Sax. endings in *d, g, gh, th*; *ex., lafft, chilt, whispur't, ony-borri, hommert, gooin, enoo, isno, didno*, and in *tey* for they, *tat* for that. From the same source proceed a peculiar inflection of vowel sounds, as *eaw* for ou, oo; *ex., steawp, keawrt, eawr, eawt*, as also the Welsh pronunciation of *i* as *ee, seely, silly*, and the aspiration of consonants, such as *c* and *s* in *plaze* for place, *yezzily*, easily. If we cross the border Eastward, we come upon dialectic traces of our Norse invaders. Yorkshiremen, whilst maintaining much of the rustic drawl, *noa, agean, reight aweay, knawahs* for knows, *laater*, harden their consonants in a manner peculiarly Scandinavian, *ex., iver, onny, monny, boddy, wakken, bud* for but, *liggin* for lying, *nobbut, brig*, bridge, *gehring*, getting, *mak*, make. Along the Southern Counties we find the Anglo-Saxon in its greatest purity and least disturbance. The most striking characteristics are the diphthongal sounds of the vowels, which appear to have considerably broadened in rustic pronunciation in the course of centuries,—the intensifying of *s* and *f* by the sounds of *z* and *v*—and the preservation from elision or abrasion of that ancient Ang.-Sax. *th*, which has disappeared from the whole continent of Europe. Lastly, upon the East coast, as might be anticipated, there exists an imperfect blending of Keltic, Ang.-Sax., Danish, Frisic, and Flemish influences in the dialect. Vowels are shortened, and although the diphthongal sounds of the A. S. vowels are in many instances retained, they are much attenuated as compared with the South,—a Frisic characteristic—or they are uttered in a prolonged whining key, as *dew* or *du* for do; *yeouw* for you, which requires to do it justice that Welsh dexterity of inflection needed in words like *gwaewawr*; *teu* for to—a sibilant is given to words beginning with *l* and *n*, by a prefix of *s*—*t* and *th* in terminations are sometimes hardened into *d*; *f* assumes its Flemish form of *v, fl, vl*. A Norse hardening of consonants takes place, as *shadder*, shadow, *innards*, inwards. In *thr* prefix, the *h* is dropped; and that interchange occurs of *v* and *w*, which is supposed to be a cockneyism, but which really would seem to have found its way *via* Essex, and the East end of London from East Anglia.*

* A comparison of Forby's characteristics of East Anglian dialect with those noted by Pegge, (1803) as peculiar to the local dialect of London and its environs, reveals a considerable amount of *phonetic* identity. Among other cockney pronunciations which Pegge instances are *bachelдор, argufy, kiver, daater, chimley*: *perdigious, duberous, musicianer, sermont, posteses, Portingale, scholar, discommode, drowned, an-ot'omy* for *skeleton, loveyer, pottecary, jocotious*, besides many more, all of which appear among Forby's East Anglicisms, and were probably imported into the cockney dialect by migrations from the Eastern Counties. Until comparatively recent times, from that quarter, in a larger ratio than from any other, the East end London population would be recruited.

A GLOSSARY OF EAST ANGLIAN PROVINCIALISMS.

BASED UPON THOSE OF FORBY AND MOOR.

WITH LARGE ADDITIONS, ETYMOLOGICAL AND ILLUSTRATIVE.

A List of Abbreviations and References is given at the end.

Lists and collections of provincial usage always have their value. * * * The humblest of these collections, carefully and intelligently made, will be in one way or other of real assistance. And there is the more need to urge this at the present, because, notwithstanding the tenacity with which our country-folk cling to their old forms and usages, still these forms and usages must now be rapidly growing fewer; and there are forces, moral and material, at work in England, which will probably cause that of those which now survive, the greater part will within the next fifty years have disappeared.—*Trench.*

Ut silvæ follis pronos mutantur in annos,
Prima cadunt: ita verborum vetus interit ætas,

• • •
Multa renascentur, quæ jam cecidere; cadentque
Quæ nunc sunt in honore vocabula, si volet usus.—*Horace.*

Unlike the provincialisms of Italy and France, those of our own country cannot show a series of writers whose labours have been directed towards perpetuating by original compositions the colloquial language of the lower classes, since the dialectical literature of England, so to speak, consists exclusively of Glossaries. At the first glance, these may seem to be nothing more than dry catalogues of inharmonious and degraded words; but they are in reality something much higher; and they must be regarded as invaluable records of the national language by them opportunely rescued from passing into utter oblivion—as venerable marks of the people's origin, of their feelings, and progressive intellectual advancement. Increasing facilities of education are rapidly exterminating these precious marks of lingual antiquity, or reducing them within the most narrow circulation; so that, hereafter, these little local word-books will be turned to with grateful curiosity, for the sake of ascertaining the sense of phrases that seem to provoke criticism, and defy the rules of etymology.—*Ed. Review.*

"It is among our provincial dialects that we discover many beautiful archaisms, scattered remnants of our language, which explain those obscurities of our more ancient writers, singularities of phrase, or lingual peculiarities, which have so often bewildered the most acute of our commentators. . . . These provincial modes of speech have often actually preserved for us the origin of English phraseology, and enlightened the philologist in a path unexplored.

"A language, in the progress of its refinement, loses as well as gains in the amount of words, and the good fortune of expressive phrases. Some become equivocal by changing their signification, and some fall obsolete, one cannot tell why, for custom or caprice arbitrate, guided by no law, and often with an unmusical ear. These discarded but faithful servants, now treated as outcasts and not even suspected to have any habitation, are safely lodged in some of our dialects. As the people are faithful traditionists, repeating the words of their forefathers, and are the longest to preserve their customs, they are the most certain antiquaries; and their oral knowledge and their ancient observances often elucidate many an archaeological obscurity.

"Words are not barbarous nor obsolete because no longer used in our written composition, since some of the most exquisite and picturesque, which have ceased to enrich our writings, live in immortal pages."—*DISRAELI (Amenities of Literature).*

"I am only anxious to repeat that we never know how wide a field for speculation and reflection may be opened by the recovery and preservation of a single obscure provincialism; and that in contributing to such an object, we may be preparing the materials for observations on language, far more important than I have in this instance been able to submit to the reader."—*SIR E. W. HEAD, Bart. (Classical Museum, No. IV.).*

A. Used as an abbreviation for *he, or, our, if, on, at, have, of*.

Ex. from *Moor*: *he*; 'there 'a go', for there he goes—*or*; 'Wutha 'a wool 'a nae'—*at* or *our*; 'a' go out of 'as farm next a-Lady'—*if*; 'I'll gi ye a dunt i' the hid 'a ye dew so no more'—*on*; 'We'll go 'a Sunday'—*in*; 'a live 'a hin house'—*have*; 'you mought as well 'a dunt as nut'—*of*; 'a'v a touch 'a the Sheers in um.

ABOUT. Near to. Ex. 'Is the horse worth forty pounds?' 'Nothing *about* it.'

ADDLE, AADLE. To thrive or flourish: applied to crops. 'Ta dont fare to *addle*,' implies the reverse.

'Where ivy embraceth the tree very sore
Kill ivy, else tree will *addle* no more.'—*Tusser*

Latham, in his New Eng. Dict., calls it obsolete. Its occurrence in our early literature in *this* sense seems to be very rare. In Scotland, to *addle* is to moisten the roots of plants. The Gael has *adhari*, progress, advance; *adhalarach*, a nourisher. Wel., *adlar*, to spring up after cutting; *adlonair*, refreshed.

Also, to earn. The sense in which it is used out of East Anglia. A.S. *edleanian*, to reward. In Lanc., *addle*; in Staff., *adle*; Chesh., *yeddle*.

ACRE-SPIRE. The sprouting of barley. Also, Scot., *Acre-sprit*, the sprouting or shooting of potatoes.

A. S., *æccr*; Isl., *akur*, corn; Dan., *spire*, to sprout.

AFEARD. Afraid, Scot., *afferd*, from A.S. *ferght*, fright; whilst afraid is from Fr., *effrayer*. Frequently used by Shakspeare.

'The Lordes were *aferd* of swech maner puple.'—*Capgrave*, 1464.

AFTERMATH. The feed left on meadows after having been mown. The second crop.

AFTER. A.S., *æfter*, afterwards, again; Goth., *aflaro*. MATH. A.S., *maw-eth*, 3rd per. sing. ind. of *maw-an*, to mow.

'The first mowing thereof for the king's use, is wont to be sooner than the common *mathe*.'—*Bp. Hall's Hard Texts*.—*Amos*, c. 7.

Garnett, Phil. Essays, p. 32, has 'average, or averish, after-grass stubble; a sense confined to the Anglian and Northumbrian Counties,—the Icelandic *afrett*; Dan., *afred*—primarily an inclosure, also pasturage,—after-grass.'

AGUE. Swelling and inflammation from taking cold. An *ague* in the face (pronounced *agah*) is a common consequence of facing a Norfolk north-easter. *Agarified*, having the ague. Suf.

Fr., *aigu*, sharp. The Wel. has *agawr*, to expand; Gael., *ag*., swelling. If derived from the tremor attending *ague*, the Gael has *lagaich*, to quiver; Goth. *agis*, trembling; Wel., *acreth*, quaking, ague; A. S., *hrithian*. Robert de Brunne writes *hage*.

AHWH. ALL OF A HUGH. Awry, aslant. A.S., *awoh*.

ALLEN. Grass land, newly broken up. *Ald-land*; A.S., *ald*, old. In Suffolk the term is *olland*, or *allens*.

AINT, AAIN'T. To anoint. Used to denote a drubbing. 'I'll *aaint* yar hide for ye.' In Cheshire, 'noint.

ALP or OLP. The Bullfinch. Also *Blood-alp*.

AMPER. An inflamed swelling, pustules. A.S., *ampre*.

ANINND. On end. 'Rise the ladder up *aninnd*.' 'Go *aninnd*,' go forward. Also, upright, rearing.

In the 'Two Gentlemen of Verona,' Proteus angrily calls Launce 'A slave, that, still an end turns me to shame.'

Collier and Singer accept Gifford's and Monk Mason's remarks that 'still an end,' was an old colloquialism for commonly, generally. Surely, a much stronger force is conveyed in the passage—that implied by 'without end, perpetually.'

ANTRUMS. Affected airs, insolences, whims, maggots. 'As in 'as *antrums* this morning;' said alike of a rude person, or skittish horse.

More common as *tantrums*, the North county term. In Chesh., *antrums*; Lanc., 'a terrible *tanterum*, a fit of passionate excitement. The Rev. J. Davies, *Phil. Trans.*, 1855, derives it from *tant*, Welsh, a gust of passion, or whim.

APPLE-JOHN, or FLAP-JACK. Sugared apples, baked in a square thin paste, the two opposite corners flapped, or turn'd over.

'Thou shalt go home with me, and we'll have flesh for holidays, fish for fasting-days, and, moreover, puddings and *Flap-Jacks*, and thou shalt be welcome.—*Pericles, Prince of Tyre*.

Collier's and Singer's Notes thereon, say 'pancakes.' Major Moor remarks, "In Suffolk, we should deem him but a 'pudden-hiddid' fellow, who did not know a *Flap-Jack* from a pancake."

ARSLE. To move backward, to fidget. Also, Lowland Scottish. Fris., *aarsel-en*, to go backward.

A baker's oven pole is called an *arseling*, or *wrastling* pole. *Arselens*, backwards. Flem., *aerselincaks*.

ASOSH, ASHOSH. Awry, aslant.

ATTER, pus, morbid matter.

Gael., *Athar*; Arabic, *aghbar*, dregs of a disease. A. S., *atter*, poison; Fris. and Dut., *etter*, pus. Yorks., *alteril*, 'matter of a sore:' a tongue furred with fever is said there to have 'a dry white *alter*.' Pr. Pv. *atty*, fylthe.

ATHWART. Across. Of common occurrence on the coast, pronounced *athart*, and *athowt*. In Dorset, *athirt*.

An Ordnance surveyor visiting Winterton lighthouses, whose lights inter-cross, they were described to him on the spot as '*thowt* lighthouses,' and appeared on the map, soon after, as 'the Thought Lighthouses.' *Thowt* pegs are the pins between which the oars of a boat are confined—the oars by their means can also be laid *athwart* the boat. A. S., *thweorian*, to traverse, cross, hence to *thwart*.

AVEL. The beard or awns of barley. The corn is said to be *avely* if, when dressed for market, the awns adhere to the grains.

Essex, *ails*; Scot., *awns*; *avvermeyl*, oat-meal; Fris. and Yorks., *Haver*, oats., Dut. and Old Scot.—Isl., *ogn*; Dan., *avne*, chaff.

AUGHT. Owed.

AVELONG WORK. Mowing or reaping lying out of the perpendicular at the sides of fields is *avolling*. A. S. *awoh*; Wel., *havyn*, an extending out. Pr. Pv. '*auelonge*, oblongus.' Leeds and Craven, oblong.

ADVISED. Advised. AUSIER, osier.

AWK, AUK. Inverted or confused. Bells are rung *awk* to give alarm of fire. Used by Fairfax, L'Estrange, and other old

writers of East Anglia, in the sense of confusedness.

Whose wild and mad brain humour nothing fitteth so just, as the stalest dudgeon or absurdest balductum, that they or their mates can invent in odd and *awk* speeches, disguisedly shapen after the antic fashion, and monstrously shorn, like old Captain Lister's spaniel."—*Gabriel Harvey's Pierce's Supererogation*, 1593.

I know a camel passeth in the Latine proverb either for gibbous and distorted, or for one that undertaketh a thing *awkely*, or ungeenly.—*Fuller's Worthies*,—*Cambridgeshire*, 1662.

'A Fool's heart is at his left hand, he is left-handed in his work; he doth it *aukedly*, untowardly.'—*Rogers' Rich Fool*, 1662.

'What we have hitherto spoken, will seem to have less of *auk* in it, if we do but pattern our leasing of body with a now of time.'—*Fairfax's Bulk and Selvedge*, 1674.

Pr. Fv. *awke*, or angry, *awkly* or wrongly. Dan., *awl*, crooked; Flem. *auwils*, foolish; Prov. Ger., *awerchi*, gawky; Fr. *gauche*, Sc. *gowk*, fool, are cognate.

AX. To ask. A.S., *acsian*. The common form in old English, and still prevalent in East Anglia and the United States.

BABBING. A mode of fishing without rod or hooks for eels in the fens, and for crabs on the coast, by letting down a line baited.

Elsewhere known as *bobbing*.

BADGET. A badger.

BACKSTRIKING. A mode of ploughing, in which the earth having been previously turned, is turned again.

BADLY. In ill health. Sometimes *sadly-badly*, and *sad-bad*.

BAFFLED. I.—Standing corn, or grass, beat about by the wind or stray cattle, are said to be '*baffled about*' or *buffed*. Nickled, snaffled, and walted, are other terms applied to standing corn beat about by wind or rain.

II.—Said of children capriciously and irregularly brought up.

Ex., 'He was *sadly baffled* in his bringing up.'

III.—To ill-use and beat about. To foil, disgrace, deceive. Of a man knocking another about the head, it would be said, 'a *baffled* 'em about the hid.'

'He by the heels him hung upon a tree,
And *bafful'd* so, that all which passed by,
The picture of his punishment might see.

—*Spenser's Faerie Queen*

'Our names would be *baffuld* on euerie booke-sellers stall, and not a chandler's mustard pot, but would wipe his mouth with our waste paper.'—*Nash's Pierce Penilesse*, 1592.

It. *Beffare*, Fr., *Beffler*, to deceive, mock; Fr., *Baffoner*, to disgrace, revile; Dut. *Baffen*, to bark at: *Verblaffen*, to put out of countenance.

BAIL. The handle of a pail or bucket. Hence the sailor's term 'to *bale out*.' Also the bow of a scythe. Gael, *speal*.

Gael., *ballan*; Bret., *bal*; Du., *baalie*; Dan., *balle*; Sw., *balga*, a pail, or tub. Hence Du., *baalien*, to empty out water with a bowl or pail.

BAHD. A bird: '*bahd's-neezen*,' bird's-nesting.

BAIN. Pliant, limber. Chesh., near, convenient. North., near, ready, easy; Dan., *bane*, to level, smooth; Ice., *bein*. Apparently synonymous with *gain*, which see.

BALDERDASH. The local meaning attached to it by Forby is

filthy, obscene talk. **BALDER**, to use coarse language. The common meaning is idle, senseless talk.

Wel., *baldor*, prating, babbling talk; *baldorzi*, to speak foolishly, from *bal*, what jets out, and *lordd*, din, tumult. Gael., *ballartaich*, a loud noise, shouting; Icel., *búldra*, to blather; Dan., *búldre*; Fris., *bolderen*. Balderdash is also used to signify washy drink.

BALK, BAUK. A ridge of land left unploughed as a boundary; a ridge left at intervals in *balk-ploughing*. Hence, to pass over in ploughing, to skip.

‘But so well halt no man the plow
That it ne *balketh* other while.—Gower, 1325.*

Sw. G., *balka*, a ridge between two furrows; Isl., *baukur*; a partition between the stalls of a cow-house; Isl., *balkr*.

Also, a beam, or squared timber. Hence haylofts and hen roosts (Fris. *hanebalken*) are termed *balks*, as situate among the rafters. Straight young trees when felled are termed elm *bawks*, oak *bawks*, &c. When standing, *stands*. Fir *bawks*, *Spurskers*, and *Yofers*, are nearly the same.

Also an East Anglian contrivance in the *Nettuses* or milking houses, for confining the cow's head whilst being milked, by a beam or *balk*. Swed., *balk*; Dan., *biælke*; Picard, *baque*.

Bulkar as a great beam is used also in Lincolnshire, where the front of a butcher's shop is still called a *bulkar*. Fris., *balk*.

BAHANGS. Hanging down untidily, said of clothes. ‘Frisic *bengelen*,’ Hettema.

BAMBLE. To shamble, walk unsteadily.

BANDY. A hare, from the curvature of her legs. Fr., *bandé*, bent.

A curved stick, used for ball-striking in sundry games.

BANDY-HOSHOB. A game at ball played by two parties or sides, striking the ball into their opponent's goal. **BANDY-WICKET**. The game of Cricket.

Wedgewood derives *bandy* from the Sp., *banda*, a party, side, or faction.

‘Mercutio, the Prince expressly hath
Forbidden *bandying* in Verona streets.’

Fr., *bander*, to drive the ball in Tennis from side to side.

BANG. Suffolk cheese, made of milk several times skimmed.

Trip, *Wonmil*, and Suffolk *thump*, are other local names for it.

Unrivall'd stands thy county cheese, O Giles!

Whose very name alone engenders smiles;

Whose fame abroad by every tongue is spoke,

The well-known butt of many a flinty joke,

Its name derision and reproach pursue,

And strangers tell of ‘three times skimm'd skye-blue.—*Bloomfield*.

Its toughness has given rise to a number of local illustrations. In one, the cheese exclaims

Those that made me were uncivil,

For they made me harder than the d—l;

Knives won't cut me; fire won't sweat me;

Dogs bark at me, but can't eat me.

‘Hunger will break through stone walls, or anything except Suffolk cheese,’ is a proverb from Ray. Mowbray says ‘it is only fit to be cut up into gate latches, a use to which it is often applied.’ Other writers represent it as most suitable for making wheels for wheelbarrows.

Trip and *wonmil* appear to be corruptions of *strip*, and *milk* of one milking **BANGING**. Great, large. Also common in the United States. In

* John Gower, the senior of Chaucer, his friend and brother poet, possessed the manor of Multon, in Suffolk.

Suffolk and Essex *Bonnka* is large, strapping, applied to young persons, especially girls. Ex., 'What a *Bonnka* that there *Mawtha* dew grow.'

BANGE. Light rain. *Bangy, Bengy*, dull, gloomy. Essex.

Gael., *boinne*, rain drops; Dut., *beneveld*, misty, drizzly. *Bange* in Dut. and Dan. has a sense of stifling in relation to weather.

BANGLE. Applied to young shoots and broad-leaved plants, when they droop under heavy rain, or sunshine. Fris. *bengelen*.

BANK. 'Generally used for *beach*.—Miss Gurney.

Isl. *bakki*, a shore; Ger. and Dut. *bank*, used in a similar sense. A S., *bence*.

BARGAIN. A waggon load. Ex., 'I'd three *bargains* off 'a that there small fild.' An indefinite quantity. Ex., 'I've a fairish *bargain* a' lambs ta year.' 'Two good tidy *bargains* of hay from an acre.' 'A poor *bargain* of wool.' 'A sad *bargain* of lazy chaps.'

BARGOOD. Yeast; corrupted also into *burgood* and *bulgood*.

Possibly from the Wel., *Bragawd*, a sprouting up; also, a liquor of the wort of ale and mead fermented. *Bragiaw*, to swell out; *bragu*, to malt.

BARK. 'Between the bark and the wood,' a well-adjusted bargain, where neither party has the advantage.

BARLEY BIRD. The Nightingale.

BARLEY-MUNG. Barley meal mixed with water to fatten poultry.

Dut. *mengen*; Fris. *amenge*, to mix.

BARROW, or BARRA PIG. The smallest and shrillest grunter of the litter; the *pitman*, Mr. Forby says is the more general term. A.S., *berga*, a pig. In Kent, Anthony pig.

Barra, or *barrow*, a hog, is a very familiar word to all New Englandmen *Elwyn*. It is also an Exmoor word. Portg.—*Bacoro*, a one-year old pig. Arab., *bekr*, the first born.

BARNABEE. The golden-bug of Suffolk, or Lady-bird. Also *Bishop-barney*.

One settling on a child is always sent away with this sad valediction—

'Gowden-bug, Gowden-bug, fly awah home,

Yar house is bahnt deown an yar children all gone.'

It is sure to fly off on the third repetition.—*Moor*.

BARSELE, or BARKSELE. The season of stripping bark. A.S., *sæl*, season.

BARLEY-SELE. The barley sowing season.

BARRATOR. An inciter to lawsuits. O. Fr., *bareter*, to deceive, cheat, whence *barter*.

A term of opprobrium formerly often levelled at East Anglians, from their litigious propensities.

BARTH. A shelter for cattle; *Barsh*, shelter, *Kennett*. *Ray* and *Pegge* explain it 'a warm place, or pasture for calves and lambs.'

Richards Wel. Dict. has *bar*, a bush, its probable derivation. In the South it signifies a warm shelter. *Bartheless*, houseless.—Devon dialect.

'Young broom, or good pasture thy ewes do require,
Warm *barth*, and in safety their lambs do desire.'—*Tusser*.

Owen's Welsh Dict. has *barth*, a ground floor. *Forby* says from *bar*, enclosure. *Wedgewood* includes it under *berth*, the seaman's term for snug anchorage for themselves or vessels. Both are pronounced alike in East

Anglia. Wedgewood conjectures that a *berth* in the sense of a place boarded off in a ship may be derived from the Isl., *byrda*, a large place or chest of wood, or from *bord*, a board.

The **BARF HOUSE** is the Yarmouth term for the shed or ground floor open at the side, where the first stage in curing herrings takes place.

BASKING. I. A drenching in a heavy shower. II. A sound drubbing. Dan., *bask*, to slap, thwack.

BASTING. Also, a sound drubbing. Icel., *beysta*, to strike. A.S., *baist*, to beat. Sc., *baistin*.

BATLINS. The loppings or *stowin* of trees. *Battens*, rails used for fencing.

A.S., *bat*, a staff or stick; *bat-en*, made of bats, as wood-en, made of wood.

BATTERY. A tea kettle, Suffolk.—*Halliwell*.

BAVENS, BAVINS. Light, loose faggots.

Baven, the smaller trees whose sole use is for the fire. *Skinner*. *Richardson* conjectures from Dut. *bauwen*, to build. Old Fr., *baffe*, a fagot, *Wedgewood*. A more probable derivation seems to be the Gael., *badan*, a little grove, a tuft, cluster, or bunch, *bad-aidh*, to make into tufts. See Highl Soc. Gael. Dicty.

In stacking of *bavin* and piling of logs

Make under thy *bavin* a hovel for hogs.—*Tusser*.

In Dorset, a *baven* is a faggot of long untrimmed wood.

'Men think that women (seeing them so sumptuously pearled and bespangled) cannot choose but offer to tender their tender souls at their feet. The women, they think, that (having naturally clear beauty, scorchingly blazing, which enkindles any soul that comes near it, and adding more *bavins* unto it of lascivious embolsterings,) men should even flash their hearts at first sight into purified flames of their fair faces.'—*Nash's Christ's Tears*, 1613.

BAVISH. To drive away; cor. of banish.

BAWND. Swollen. One of Sir T. Browne's collection,—now obsolete. Dan., *bulne*; Isl., *bolgna*, swollen.

BAY. A squirrel's nest. Elsewhere called *dray*. Sp. *arda*, a squirrel.

'Climb'd, like a squirrel to his *dray*,

And bore the worthless prize away.—*Cowper*.

BAY-DUCK. The shell-duck; from its bright bay colour, the shade between red and brown.

Lat., *badius*; It., *bajo*; Fr., *bai*; Span., *bayo*; also *bazo*, chestnut, yellowish brown.—*Diez*.

BEANS. *Moor* writes 'three blue beans in a blue bladder, rattle bladder, rattle,' is as old a frolicksome sort of Suffolk shibboleth as I can recollect, and is still frequently heard.'

A very old saw. See Nares' Glossary. Prior has it in his *Alma*—

'They say

That putting all his words together,

'Tis three blue beans in one blue bladder.'

BEARN. A barn, the exact A.S., *bern*.

BEATH or **BATH**. To place green wood by the fire, to set or straiten it by heat. A.S., *bethian*.

BEAT-OUT, puzzled. **BEATWORLD**, beyond control.

BEAU-TRAPS. Loose pavements in the footway, under which dirt and water collects, liable to splash any one that treads on them.—*Halliwell*.

BECK. A brook or rivulet. A.S., *becc*; Isl., *bekkr*; Dut., *beek*; Fr., *bec*; Su. G., *baeck*; Teut., *beke*; common to all the Northern dialects.

Cognate derivatives possibly exist in the Wel. *bac*, little, crooked, having many windings; Gael., *bac*; in the North Highlands, gurgles limosus, a muddy torrent. Also, *bac*, a bending ground or hill. See High Sy. Gael. Dicty.

Wedgewood supposes that *beck*, a brook, may be fundamentally the same as Isl., *bakki*, a bank. A beck is not a river where the water first catches the eye, but a brook, where at a little distance the broken banks are the conspicuous object, while the water is often not seen at all.

BEEIN. A home—a place to *be in*. 'If I could but git a *beein*, I can fisherate for myself.'—*Moor*.

Clearly, Mr. Dickens made use of 'Moor's Suffolk Words,' for the dialect introduced into *David Copperfield*.—"Theerfur 'tan't my intentions to moor Missis Gummidge 'long with them, but to find a *Beein* fur her, wheer she can fisherate fur herself." Fisherate is not in *Forby*.

BAWDA. To abuse grossly. A Suffolk man complains whiningly of having been 'bawder'd and ragg'd in a shameful waah.'—*Moor*.

From Welsh, *baw*., dirty, filthy; Scot., *bourd*, to mock, to jest; Isl., *baga*.

BECKET. A spade used in cutting turf. A. S., *becceorfan*, to cut, pare away.

BECOMES, one's best clothes.

BEDREPES. Days of harvesting, formerly performed by customary tenants, at the bidding of their lords. See *Cullum's Hawsted*, 1784, p. 189.

BEDSETTLE. A bedstead. A. S. *setl*, a seat. Essex.

BEETLE. A large heavy wooden hammer, its head hooped with iron, and studded all over with nails, used for riving wood: a heavy mallet.

'A plough-beetle, plough-staff, to farther the plough,
Great clod to asunder that breaketh so rough.'—*Tusser*.

'If I do, fillip me with a three-man beetle.'—*Hen. IV.*, P. 2., I 2.

BET, BET UP. To mend nets. Beetster, a net mender. A. S., *betan*; Dut., *beteren*, to make better, repair. Fris., *beta*.

'Pipen he coude, and fishe, and nettes bete.'—*Chaucer's Reve's Tale*.

In the East Coast Herring, and the Cornish Pilchard Fisheries, used to denote mending nets. In Lancashire, 'Beet t'foire,' means either to kindle or mend it. 'Böten fuer, mend the fire, is a very common Low-German phrase.

BEEZLINS. Milk of the third or fourth milking after calving.

The first milking is called *Beestings*, or *Beastlings*. A. S., *beost*, *byst*; G., *biest milch*; Frisic, *byist*; Dut., *biest*.

BED-FAGGOT. A contemptuous name for bed-fellow.

BEGGAR'S VELVET. The lightest particles of down shaken from a feather bed, left by sluttish housemaids to collect under the bed.—*Forby*. *Beggary*, full of weeds.

BEGONE. Worn, aged, decayed. Ex., 'The thatch is lamentably *begone*.'

BEING, part. Because. Used somewhat like the abl. abs. in Latin. Ex., 'I could not meet you yesterday, *being* I was ill in bed.'

Employed by Bp. Pearson, a Norfolk man. In Dorset, *beens*.

Much in use in the Middle States of America, and among the illiterate in New England.—*Bartlett*.

'I'll let you have her for eight hundred dollars, *being* as you're a minister.'—*Mrs. Stowe's Dred*.

BELKING. Lounging at full length. A. S., *belicgan*, to lie along.

BELLIBORION. A variety of apple; cor. of Fr., *belle et bonne*.

BELSIZE. Bulky, of goodly size.

BELL-SOLLER. The loft on which ringers stand. See *Soller*.

BEN. A figure set on the top of the last harvest load, dressed up with ribbons.

BEN JOLTRAM. Brown bread soaked in skimm'd milk, the ploughboy's usual breakfast.

BENT, BENTEN, BENTLES. Coarse reedy grass. Under the name are comprised *arundo arenaria*, *agrostis vulgaris*, the *triticum junceum* &c., pasturage rejected by cattle. Ger., *binsen*, rushes.

In Wessex, *bennets*. A Suffolk saw, is—

'The dow she dew no sorrow know
Until she dew a benten go.'

i. e., when other food failing, she is forced to betake herself to the seeding *Bentles*, where she finds but scurvy fare.—*Moor*.

By 15 and 16 Geo. II., c. 33, plucking up and carrying away *Starr* or *Bent* within five miles of the Lancashire coast 'sand hills,' was punishable by fine, imprisonment and whipping.

'*Benting-time*, when pigeons feed on *Bents*, before pease are ripe.'—*Walker*.

In the North, *bents* are called *Wringle-streas* and *Windle-straws*.

Dr. R. C. Prior, *Pop. Names of Brit. Plants*, has *Bent Grass*, any wiry grass, such as usually grows upon a *bent*,—a common, or other neglected ground.' The term is frequent in Old English and Scottish poetry.

BESTOW. I.—To lay up, to put out of the way, as in the seaman's phrase, 'to stow away.' 'Where did you bestow that there hahm?' A.S., *stow*, a place.

II.—To put a woman to bed. 'She was *bestowed* last week.'

BETTY-TIT. The titmouse. Suf.

BEVER. The afternoon snack of harvest men and out-door workers.

'A mid-daies meale; an undermeale; a boire or beaver; a refreshing betwixt meales.'—*Nomenclator*, 1585.

'The afternoon and evening comutations in *Academiæ*, *jurisque collegiis* are called *bevers*.'—*Spellman*. Beverage was a drink given as a reward for labour, and expected. In Devon, a mixture of cider, water, and spice is called beverage. 'Beverage, drink money, demanded on the first appearance of a new suit of clothes. In Scotland, a kiss given to a female on her first wearing a new dress. A Suffolk workman's *extra* meals, as looked for at gentlemen's houses, are descanted on with considerable humour by *Moor*. They consist of *leveners*, *noonins*, or *nunshens*, *bevers*, and *foorzes*, exclusive of sundry little interjectional stimuli and interpolations under the head of *whets*, *baits*, *snaps*, *snacks*, and *snatches*, relieved by *Lowans* of beer.

'In Dorset, the agricultural labourers were accustomed some years since to say that in harvest time they required seven meals in the day—dew bit, breakfast, nunchoon, cruncheon, nammet, crammet and supper.'—*Barnes*.

In Cheshire and Lancashire, *bagging-time* is the time for afternoon luncheon.

BEZZLE. I.—To drink greedily. Probably imitative—like *guzzle*—of the sounds made in greedy eating and drinking.

'Oh me! what odds there seemeth 'twixt their cheer,
And the swoln bezzle at an alehouse fire.'—*Hall's Satires*.

II.—A tool when blunted or turned in whetting or grinding is said to be bezzled. Also, used as a corruption of *bevel*, to slope.

Bizeau, a *bezte*, *bezeling*, or *scuing*; such a slopefulness as is in the point of a chizle, &c.—*Colgr. Fr. Dict.*, 1632, Leeds dial., *bezzle*; Cumb., *belving*.

BIBBLE. To eat like a duck gathering its food from water. To tipple. Lat., *bibere*.

'I perceive you are no great *bybler* (reader of the Bible) Pasiphilo?

Pas. Yes, Sir, an excellent good *bibbler*, specially in a bottle.—*Gascoigne*.

BIGGE, a pap or teat. Essex.

Appears in Bailey's Dict., 1735, as an Essex word. Wright, Prov. D. says 'usually applied to a cow.' Gifford, a native of Essex, introduces the word in his Dialogue on Witches. 1803. A. S. *bige*, a bosom; Gael., *balg*, a bag. Dan. *bugne*, to bulge;—*bigne*, a bump, knob.—*Cot. Fr. Dict.*, 1632.

BIESTS. The wen-like protuberances on growing trees. An excrescence. Possibly from Ger. *beissen*, to scar.

BIFFIN. An apple peculiar to Norfolk, also called *beau-fin*.

Its name is popularly said to be beefin, from its resemblance to a piece of raw beef.

BIGG. A species of barley, called also *barley bigg*, *hordeum hexastichon*, Lin. *Forby* states it is much cultivated in the fens of Norfolk and Ely. It yields and grinds well, but will not malt. Isl., *bygg*. Dan., *byge*.

BIGHES. Jewels, female ornaments, used figuratively. Ex., 'She's all in her *bighes* to day,' i.e. best graces. Vulg. of Fr. *bijoux*.

Bijou, a jewel, from a compound *bisjocare*, *bijouer*, something doubly sparkling. Perhaps from the Celtic (O. Cornish) *bisou*, 'anulus.' Bret. *bizou*; Wel., *byson*; from *bys*, a finger. *Diez*. A cognate is *bizarre*.

In his Gloss. to *Pricke of Conscience*, Mr. Morris derives *bigg*, rich, well-furnished from Isl., *bolga*, a swelling.

'Now er we *bigg*, now er we bare,

Now er we hale, now seke and sare.—*Pr. C.*

BILLY-WIX. An owl.

BINNE-BINNE, bye and bye.

BING. A bin for corn, flour, wine, &c. Dan., *bing*; Sw., *binge*; a division in a granary, or bin.

BIRD OF THE EYE. The pupil, or rather the little reflected image on the retina.

'Babies in the eyes,' is a phrase occurring in our Elizabethan poets.

BISHOP. To confirm. A. S., *biscopod*, confirmed.

BLACK-SAP. An advanced stage of jaundice.

BLAR, BLARE, BLORE. Calves, sheep, asses, and children, are all said to *blare*. 'What a *blaren* you dew keep,' is said to a noisy child.—*Moor*. Dut., *blaaren*, to bellow; Gael., *blaor*, a cry; Wel., *blaw*. Early North Ang. *blere*, to mock. *Blerynge*, wythe mowe makynge. *Pr. Pm.*

BLAUTHY. Bloated. Dut., *blaet*, ventosus.

BLIND. Said of infertile blossoms, and of an empty nut, elsewhere called deaf. A. S., *blind-netel*, a dead nettle which does not sting.

BLEE. General resemblance, not 'colour and complexion,' the ordinary meaning attached to it. Ex., 'That boy has a strong *blee* of his father.' A. S., *bleo*.

Nares declares the word obsolete in Queen Elizabeth's time. It appears in *Kemp's Nine Daies Wonder in a Daunce to Norwich*, 1600.

'A country Lass, brown as a berry,
Blith of *blee*, in heart as merry,
Cheekes well-fed, and sides well larded,
Every bone with fat flesh guarded.'

BLEEK. Pale, sickly, also sheepish. To bleach. Dut., *bleek*, pale; A.S., *blæcan*, to bleach; Isl., *bleikja*; Dan., *bleg*, to grow pale.

BLEFF. Turbulent, noisy. Wel., *blwth*, a blast, stir.

BLINKED BEER. Said not of sour beer, but beer with an ill flavour from too long delay in fermentation, is said to be *blinked*, before it turns sour.

'*Blink*, to become a little sour. Su. G., *blaenka*; Germ. *blinken*, to lighten, which has the effect of making liquids sour.—*Jamieson's Scot. Dict.*

BLOOD-OLPH or **ALP.** The bull-finch. *Green-olph*, the green-finch.

BLOOD-FALLEN. Chill-blained.

BLOUZE. I.—A woman with loose and disordered hair or head dress, or decorated with vulgar finery.

Its primary sense is to exhibit bright colours, to glow. Dut. *bloeden*, *blose*, redness of the cheeks. 'A girl whose face looks red by running abroad in the wind and weather is called a *blouze*.'—*Kennet*. Dut., *blosaerd*, a red-cheeked person. Dan., *blusse*, to blush.

'Out trudgeth Hew Make-shift, with hook and with line;

Whiles Gillet, his *blouse*, is a milking thy cow.'—*Tusser*.

'To paint some *Blouesse* with a borrowed grace.'—*Hall's Satires*.

II.—Also a woman's bonnet, of the sort called a *slouch*.

BLOSSOMED. Said of cream whilst churning becoming full of air, rendering the task of churning butter tedious.

BLOATERS. Lightly cured herrings, intended for speedy consumption.

BLOTE. To swell. Also to set a smoaking or drying by the fire.—*Bailey*.

Mr. Wedgewood writes (*Trans. Phil. Soc.*, 1855).—'I do not believe that to puff out, to swell, is the primary meaning of this word; nor yet to smoke, as it is often explained. The fact is that there are two ways of preserving herrings; one intended to last for a comparatively short time, when the juices of the animal are allowed to remain; and it is subjected to a single smoking only; the other, when the process of drying is thoroughly carried out, and the smoking process is repeated three times. Fish prepared in the former way are properly called bloaters or blote-herrings, while those that have undergone the more complete process are the true red-herring. *Derivation.* Isl., *blautr*, soft, soaked; Sw., *blot*; Dan., *blödagtig*, blod fisk, fresh undried fish, as opposed to *tor fisk*, cured fish.

'I have four dozen of fine firebrands in my belly, I have more smoke in my mouth than would blote a hundred herrings.'—*Beaumont and Fletcher*.

'Why you stink like so many blote-herrings, newly taken out of the chimney.'—*Ben Jonson*.

'Lay you an old courtier on the coals like a sausage or a blote-herring.'—*Idem*.

'Make a meal of a blote-herring, water it with four shillings beer, and then swear we have dined as well as my Lord Mayor.'—*Match at Midnight*.—*Ola Play*—from *Nares*.

'Let the blout king tempt you again to bed.'—*Hamlet*.

By some writers a smoke-dried, and therefore shrivelled sense was attached to the word, thus—

'And dry them like herrings with this smok; ;

For herrings in the sea are large and full,

But shrink in bloating, and together pull.'

—*Sylvester's Tobacco butt*.

Bloaters are also called on the East Coast *blown herrings*, *bawen herrings* *bone herrings*. Also *low-bowen herrings*, and, adds *Forby* 'bloaters', but we do not acknowledge the word!

BLOW. Blossoms. Ex., 'There is a fine *blow* of apples this year.' 'Six pound of *blows* to ten gallons of water,' is a receipt for cowslip or peagle wine.

BLUNK. Squally, tempestuous. Wel., *blung*, ruffled, turbulent.

BLUSTER WOOD. Shoots of fruit trees or shrubs that require pruning.

BLUTHER. I.—To blot in writing. II.—Daub the face with crying, both also Scot., see Jam. III.—Blubber, a *bubble*.

Su. Goth. *Plutra*, to write badly. Mæc. Goth., *blotthjan*, irritum reddere. Hence also *blubber*, to bubble up (to weep till the tears stand in bubbles Baker's N. Gl.), *blober*, I wepe, *Palsgrave*, 1530. Pr. Pv. *Blobure*, burbulium *Blubber*, a bubble, or *blob* or blister, is common to the Anglian dialects 'Bluther's an' roars like a barn.'—*Leeds Dial.*

Her swollen eyes were much disfigured,

And her fair face with tears was foully *blubbered*.—*Fairy Queen*.

BOB. To cheat. *Bobbish*, well, hearty, brusk, *bobbery*, a row, a disturbance; *bobbishly*, cleverly, *bob*, a joke, a pleasantry, also a blow.

'O painfull time, for every crime!

What tonged ears, like baited bears!

What *bobbed* lips, what jerks, what nips!—*Tusser*.

'Pr. Pv. *bobet*.'—'a *coup de poing*.'—*Palsg.*

'For Lucius thinking to become a foule

Became a fool, yea, more than that, an asse,

A *bobbing* block, a beating stocke, an owle.'—*G. Gascoigne*.

'And laymen very lobbis, beating them with *bobbis*.'—*Skelton*.

'Madam, I am even with you for your London tricks, I have given you such a *bob*.'—*Shadwell's Epsom Wells*.

BODE. To board. Ex., 'He *bodes* and lodges there.' A.S., *beod*; Fris., *boed*. Platt. Deut., *boord*; Norse, *brod*. *Bode cloth*, a table cloth.

BODGE. To patch clumsily; to bungle. 'Dew it kiender tidily now, an dont make a *bodge* ont'.—*Moor*. To *boggle*, to fail.

'*Bodge* differs from *botch* in that while the latter implies more of awkwardness, the former has more of the ludicrous.'—*Leeds Dial.*

BOGG. Sturdy, self-sufficient, petulant. Wel., *bob*, a swelling. *bogwyn*, might. Ray in his South and East country words has *bogge*, bold, forward, sawcy. So we say a very *bog* fellow.

BOIST. A swelling. *Boistous* is used by Wycliffe and Chaucer in the modern sense of *boisterous*.

Boystous, rudis. *Promp. Parv.* Wel., *bwystus*, wild, ferocious; Dut., *byster*, troubled, violent.

Inflamed also with anger, they *boysteously* entered among the people.—*Bale, Image*, pt. ii.

BOKE, bulk. Ex., 'There is more *bok*e than corn in that grass.' 'Ta rise well, according to the *bok*e.' *Boke load*, a bulky load, also to swell. Scot., *bouk*.

BOKE. To nauseate, to vomit. A. S., *bealcan*, to belch.

BOKE-OUT. To swell out, to gain prominence. Isl., *bulka*.

'So, 'tis hard to think there should be a whereness so unlike to ours, as we are creatures with body, as not to be *boakt* out after the way that we are.'—*Fairfax*.

BOMBAZE. To confound, bewilder, perplex. Ex., 'I am right on -*bombazed*,' dazzled, overcome.

It., *bombanza*, rejoicing, riot. O. Fr., *bombance*, saucy boasting, immoderate display.

BONE-CART. To carry on the shoulder. Ex., 'I couldn't av a horse, so I was fohst to *bone-cart* 'em.'

BONNKA. Strapping, bouncing—applied to young girls.

Gael., *bonnantla*, strong, stout, having a good bottom, well set; *bonn-chas*, strong-legg'd.

BONE-DRY. Bone-lazy, bone-tired, bone-sore, perfectly so.

BONNY. Brisk, cheerful, in good health and spirits, good looking.

'Their goyuge out of Britayne was to become honest Christen menys wyves, and not to go on pylgrymage to Rome, and so become byshoppes *bonilasses* or prestes playeferes.'—*Bale's Volaries*.

BONX. To beat batter for puddings, Essex. Dut., *bonzen*.

BOOBY-HUTCH. A clumsy covered carriage or seat.

'A carriage-body put on runners and used as a sleigh, was called in New England a *booby hut*.'—*Elwyn*.

BOODLE. The corn marygold, *Chrysanthemum segetum*. A great plague to farmers. A. S. *bothen*. In Dorset *botherum*.

'The brake and the cockle, be noisome too much,

Yet like unto *boodle*, no weed there is such.'—*Tusser*.

BOPP. To dip or duck suddenly. 'I sah Gran-paa! did yeow see that there guse *bop* under the gate wah?' "Aah, Jim baw."

Dut., *doppen*, *duypen*, to duck the head; Sc., *doup*.

BORH, BOR. One of the most characteristic of colloquial *Norfolcisms*, applied indiscriminately to persons of both sexes and all ages—one of which it has been wittily observed, that in Norfolk, 'together' is its plural.

Its most probable derivation appears to be neigh-bour. A. S., *neah*, near. *Neah-bur*; *ge-bure*, a countryman; Ger., *nach-bar*; Dan., *na-bo*; bo, a dwelling; boe, to reside; Ger., *bauen*, to build, cultivate. Dut., *buur*, our *boor*.

'Our Saxons otherwhile did term them, like the Dutchmen, *boors*, that is such as live by tilth or grasing, and by works of husbandry.'—*Spelman*.

If this explanation be admitted, one old woman may, without absurdity, say to another (as often happens), 'Co' *bor*, let's go a sticking in the 'squire's plantations.' And the other may answer, 'Aye, *bor*, so we will.'

'Physiologically speaking, I should say that the phonetic corruptions are always the result of muscular effeminacy, * * * produced by slurring over.

—*M. Muller on Language, Second Series*.

As an expletive of incessant use, neighbour would soon be shorn of its first syllable, as *Horne Tooke*, in his *Diversions of Purley*, remarks, 'Letters, like soldiers, being very apt to desert and drop off in a long march.' When a boy answers a lady in the words 'yes 'm,' he is not aware that his 'm' is a fragment of the five syllables *mea domina* (*madonna*, *madame*, *madam*, *ma'am*, 'm).

Bor and *together* seem to play that indispensable part in Norfolk dialect which *gaily*, *likely*, *belike*, *whereby*, *however*, *you know*, *you see*, *just so* and similar expletives serve in other rural districts in filling up the gaps and rounding off the abrupt edges of colloquial utterance. Almost every one of us has an unconscious trick of this kind.

De Quincey, in his *Essay on Style*; denounces these dialectic forms as

debasement of the Greek prose style, and as a badge of garrulity from which it never cleansed itself. 'The colloquial expletives so profusely employed by Plato, more than anybody, the forms of his sentences, his transitions, and other intense peculiarities of the chattering man, as opposed to the meditating man, have crept over the face of Greek literature, and though some people think everything holy which is printed in Greek characters, we must be allowed to rank these forms of expression as mere vulgarities. Sometimes in Westmoreland, if you chance to meet an ancient father of his valley, one who is thoroughly vernacular in his talk, being unsung by the modern furnace of revolution, you may have a fancy for asking him how far it is to the next town. In which case you will receive for answer pretty nearly the following words: "Why like, it's gaily nigh like to four mile like." Now if the pruriency of your curiosity should carry you to torment and vex this aged man, by pressing a special investigation into this word *like*, the only result is likely to be that you will kill *him*, and do yourself no good. Call it an expletive indeed! a filling up! Why to him it is the only indispensable part of the sentence: the sole fixture. It is the balustrade which enables him to descend the stairs of conversation without falling overboard; and if the word were proscribed by Parliament, he would have no resource but in everlasting silence. Now the expletives of Plato are as gross, and must have been to the Athenian as unintelligible as those of the Westmoreland peasant. It is true, the value, the effect to the feelings, was secured by daily use and by the position in the sentence. But so it is to the English peasant. *Like* in his use is a modifying, a restraining particle, which forbids you to understand anything in a dangerous unconditional sense. But then again the Greek particle of transition, that eternal *de* strictly equivalent to the *whereby* of a sailor; "whereby I went to London; whereby I was robbed; whereby I found the man that robbed me." All relations, all modes of succession or transition, are indicated by one and the same particle. This could arise, even as license, only in laxity of conversation.

BOSH. To cut a *bosh* is a stronger expression than to cut a dash, more showy and expansive.

Wedgewood ascribes its introduction to our modern intercourse with Turkey; *bosh*, Tur., is empty, vain. We had the word centuries before in the Wel. *bost*, a boasting or bragging; Gael., *bosd*.

BOSKY. Tipsy. Wel., *brwysgaw*, drunk. Also Devonsh.

BOSS. A mortar hod carried on the shoulders like a hump. Dut., *boss*, a knob; Fr., *bosse*, a hump.

BOSSOCH. To toss and tumble clumsily; to throw the limbs as it were in a heap.

Gael., *bosag*, a handful, bunch; Dut., *bos*.

BOTCHER. A bungler. To mend by clumsy patching. Var. of *bodge*; Dut., *boetsen*, to mend. 'Swiss, *batschen-patschen*, to botch or patch.—*Stalder*.

'They sweat, they blunder, they bounce and plunge in the pulpit: but all is voice, but no substance; they deaf men's ears, but not edify. Scripture, peradventure, they come off thick and threefold with: but it is so ugly daubed, plastered, and patched on, so peevishly specked and applied, as if a *botcher*, with a number of sattin and velvet shreds, should clout and mend leather-doublers and cloth breeches.'—*Nash's Christ's Tears*.

BOTTLE OF HAY. Not 'a truss,' *Nares*, nor 'a quantity of hay or grass bundled up,' *Johnson*, but such a moderate bundle as may serve for one feed, twisted somewhat in the shape of a bottle. *Barley-bottles*, little bundles of barley in the straw were formerly given to farm horses in East Anglia. The dug of a cow is called her *bottle*, as well as her *bag*.

Cotgrave's Fr. Diet., 1632, has *boteau*, a bundle or bottle, as of hay, &c.; *boteler*, to make into bottles or bundles. Wel., *bothel*, a rotundity, from *bol*, belly; Gael., *boiteil*, a bundle of hay or straw; Lat., *botulus*, a sausage. *Bottleman* occurs as an ostler. 'Botelle of hey, fenifascis.'—*Pr. Pv.*

'For he shall tell a tale by my fey,

Altho' it be not worth a *botel* hey.'—*Chaucer.*

'Lawiers are troubled with the Heat of the Liver, which makes the Palms of their Hands so hot, that they cannot be coold, vnlesse they be rub'd with the Oile of Angels; but the poore Man, that giueves but his bare Fee, or, perhaps, pleads in *forma pauperis*, he hunteth for hares with a Taber, and gropeth in the Darke to find a Needle in a Bottle of Hay.'—*Green's Quip for an Vpstart Courtier*, 1592.

'Methinks I have a great desire to a *bottle of hay*; good hay, sweet hay, hath no fellow.'—*Bottom*, in *Mids. N. D.*, iv., 1.

'This I am sure, a needle may be sooner found in a *bottle* of hay, than the arms of some sheriffs of counties to be found in the herald's visitation of the said counties.'—*Fuller's Worthies.*

BOTTLE-BIRD. An apple rolled up and baked in a crust.

BOTTLE-BUMP. The Bittern, anciently called *bittour* or *buttour*, of which the first part of the East Anglian term is a corruption.

The last syllable is derived from its dull hollow note.

Wel., *bwmp*, a hollow sound, *bwmp y gors*, the bittern; Dut., *butoor*; Sw., *rödrum*.

'And as a *bitour* bumbleth in the mire.'—*Chaucer.*
paraphrased by Dryden,

'And as a *bittour* bumps within a reed.'

'That a *bittor* maketh that mugient noyse, or as we term it *bumping*, by putting its bill into a reed, as most believe, or as Bellonius and Aldrovandus conceive by putting the same in water or mud, and after a while retayning the Ay, by suddenly excluding it again, is not so easily made out.'—*Sir T. Browne's Vulgar Errors*, B. III.

BOTTLE-NOSE. The common porpoise. So called by the coast fishermen.

BOTRY. Proud; Wel., *balcez*, pride; and *poten*, to swell out, pout; Gael., *boiteal*, pride; It., *boria*, pride; Dut., *bout*, bold.

BOUGE. I.—To make a bouge, to commit a gross blunder—to get a heavy fall by taking an awkward false step. II.—To bulge or swell out, to bilge.

A ship is said to *bilge*, when striking on a rock; opening its *bulge* or belly. Gael., *bolg*; Isl., *bolga*. *Bouge*, to swell out, is still used in New England.

For feare, lest therevpon

Our shippe should *bouge*, then calde we fast for fire.—*Gascoigne.*

BOUT-HAMMER. A blacksmith's heavy two-handed hammer.

BOUT. A furrow. 'Four *bouts* to a yard,' means that the plough turns over nine inches of soil in each *bout*. It., *botta*.

Hartshorne, in his *Salop Ant.*, describes *bout* as two furrows, one up, one down the ridge.

BOWDS. Weevils, *circulio granarius*. Lin. An insect that injures grain, flour, and malt in mills and granaries. Gael., *boiteag*, maggot.

'But foisty the bread corn and *bowd*-eaten malt.'—*Tusser.*

'Long kept in ill sollar (loft) undoubted thou shalt

Through *bowds* without number lose quickly thy malt.'—*Id.*

Ray gives the word as local to East Anglia. Pr. Pv., *bowde*, malte worme.

BRABBLE. 'A *brabbly* sea,' a short swell, little waves in quick succession. Dut., *brabbelen*, to rattle, mingle confusedly.

BRACKLE, BRACKLY, BRICKLE. Brittle. Applied here particularly to standing corn so quickly ripened as to snap short off. *Bruckle*, not coherent.—Somerset. *Bracks*, minute brittle particles, as straw, dust, &c.

'Cleavesomeness we know is the great hanger on to body; but yet the least *brack* of body cannot be broken a pieces, because 'tis already the least; yet 'tis as really body as that piece which can, and no whit nearer ghost than it was when knit to more.—*Fairfax*.

'God then being as Almighty in the least *brack* of the world, as in the whole world.—*Fairfax*.

The Lanc. and Scot. form of brittle; also brackle; Gael., *brìag*; Mæso Goth. *brickan*; A. S., *brecan*; Dut., *brokel*; *breke-lick*. Fris., *brackle*. In Old Eng., *brecca* is a breach; *breck*, a bruise, a hedge gap.

BRADCOCKS. Young turbot.

BRAIDING. Applied on the East Coast to net making. A. S., *bredan*; Dut., *breyden*, to knit, weave; Wel., *brwyd*; *Io brede me max*, I braid myself nets.—*Col. Monast Elf*. To net or wash out lightly.—*Leeds Dial*.

The single twyned cordes may no such stresse endure,

As cables *brayed* three-fould may, together wreathed sure.—*Surrey*.

BRAMISH. To boast, assume affected airs. Ger. *bramar*, to brag.

BRAND OR BRANDED. Smutty corn. Frisic, *brand*, the smut in wheat. Dan., *brand*; Flem., *braon*; Ger., *brandig*.

Branded, Sc. having a reddish brown colour, as if singed by fire; a *branded* cow, almost entirely brown. Goth., *braun*; Isl., *brun*, the colour of things burnt; G. *brennen*, to burn; *brand corn*, blighted corn. East Anglicisms and New Englandisms are *brand-new*, *brand-fire-new*; *brandon*, a wisp of straw.

BRANDY BOTTLES. The yellow water lilies. Nuphar Luteum from the shape of the seed vessel.

BRANK. buck-wheat. *Polygonum fagopyrum*. Lat., *brance*.

'Gallice quoque suum genus farris dedere, quod illic *brance* vocant, apud nos sandalam, nitidissimi grani.—*Pliny Hist. Nat.*, xviii., c. 7.

Brance, bearded red wheat.—*Colgrave*, 1632. *Brank*, a sort of grain called Buck wheat.—*Bailey*. In some counties called crap.

BRASH. An acid watery rising from the stomach to the mouth, as in the heartburn.

Occurs, also, in the North, in Warwicksh., and the Scot. dialects with the same meaning. Gael, *braise*, sickness; *braghaid*, heartburn from acrid humour.

BRASHY. Applied to land overgrown with rushes, twigs, &c.

Wel., *brwyn*, abounding with rushes. 'Land light and brittle, full of small stones and gravel, is said in Gloucestershire to be *brashie*.—*Wright*.

Brashy, small, rubbishing, also of delicate constitution.—*North*.

BRASH. Refuse boughs, clippings of hedges, twigs, &c.

Brash, rubbish, fuel gathered by the poor from 'the *brash* sand, the beach within Whitby harbour, a mixture of coal dust, chips and twigs deposited by the river in its tidal flow.—*Whitby Gloss*. Refuse—*Teesdale*; cut brushwood—*Her. and Glouc*. *Brawche*, rakings of straw to kindle fires.—*Grose*. Ger., *bros*; Cornish, *brau*; O. Ger., *broosch*, frail, brittle.

In New York it is often heard in the markets applied to vegetables, ex., 'these radishes are *brash*', i.e., brittle.—*Bartlett's Americanisms*.

BRATTLINGS. Loppings from felled trees. *Bravotch*, or *broach-wood*, the twisted hazel, willow, &c., used to peg down straw or reed by thatchers. In Chesh. called *Thatch pricks*.

'For after the full nice *bratling* out of reality, into muchnesses and little neases, there falls to the share of this, as little as may be, to keep it from dwindling into an altogether nothing, or a middlekin between something and nothing, that is neither of them.'—*Fairfax*.

BRECK. A large division of an open corn field. A sheep walk.

A. S., *breck*, a gap.

BREEDER. A fine day.

BRED. A board to press curd for cheese, less in circumference than the vat into which it is pressed. A. S., *bredan*, to gripe.

BRED-SORE. BREEDER. A whitlow, or any sore without visible cause. Wel., *bruidon*, a broken surface, a sore.

BREW. The field side of a ditch, its brim, brow, or berm. A. S., *brerd*, margin. Isl., *barmr*, edge.

Brim is used in Yorks. in the sense of exposed. 'The house is *brimmer* than any in the neighbourhood.'—*Hamilton's Yorks. Dial.*

BRINK-WARE. Small faggots to repair the banks of rivers. Usually of white thorn. *Brincke*, brim.—*Sherwood's Eng. Dict.*, 1632.

BROACHES. Rods of willow, hazel, or other pliant wood sharpened at each end, and bent in the middle like a hair pin. Used by thatchers to pierce and fix their work. Fr., *broche*; It., *brocco*. 'Broche for a thacktare.'—*Pr. Pv.*

BROAD. A lake formed by the expansion of a river in a flat country. Numerous in East Anglia, as Oulton, Fritton, Braydon, &c. A. S., *Brædan*, to broaden.

BROAK, BROCK. To belch. Gael., *bruchd*; Fris. and Dut., *brake*.

BROGUES. Breeches, Suff.; Dut., *broek*. Used in U. S.

BROOK. To digest, stomach. A. S., *brucan*, to enjoy, profit.

'I remember yat water of mynte, or water of millefole, were good for my cosyn Bernay to drynke, for to make hym to browke.'—*Paston Letters*.

BROOM-FIELD. To inherit the entire property, make a clean sweep of it.

BRUCKLED, BRUCKET. Grimy, speckled with dirt. Ex., 'That child's hands are all over *bruckled*.' A *brucket* complexion, a dirty one. Gael., *brucach*; Wel., *bryceulyd*, full of spots, freckled. Prov., *brac*, mud; Walloon, *briac*, North, *brucke*, to make dirty.

BRUFF. Hearty, well. Ex., 'How are you?' 'Oh, pretty *bruff*!' Possibly a corruption of *brave*, or of *brusk*, brisk. Full featured, fresh looking.—*Leeds Dial* Proud, elated.—*Craven*. Gael., *brisy*; Wel., *brysg*; or Gael., *brigh*, strength; Gr. *briao*, to make strong. In West Dorset, *bruff* is brittle.

BRUMBLE-GELDER. A farmer. Pr. Pv., *brymbyll*.

BRUMBLES. Brambles:

BRUMP. One who lops or *stoughs* trees in the night. *Brumps*, faggots, the produce of such roguery.

BRUN. BRAN. Wel., *bran*, the husk of corn, Bret., *broun*.

BRUSH. To cut down with an old scythe or bill, nettles, bracken, weeds in fences, or fog in meadows.

'A *brush*-scythe and grass scythe.'—*Tusser*.

Bruschalle, ramalia, arbustum.—*Pr. Pv.* *Sp.*, *broza*, fallen leaves; *Fr.*, *brosse*, small bushes, *broussailles*, brushwood; *A. S.*, *brustian*, to sprout *Bret.*, *broust*, a bramble-bush. *Diez.* *Broust*, *brouze*-wood.—*Cotgr.*

BUCK. The body or belly of a cart. 'Full up to the *bucks*.'

A. S., *buce*; *Sw.*, *buk*; *Dut.*, *buyck*, the belly, trunk.

BUCK. To spring or bound. A skittish horse is said to *bucket*. 'Th'owd mare *bucket'd* like a cowt.' 'He's a *bucket*, een't a?'

'A *bucket* tew much for me.'—*Moor.* *A. S.*, *bucca*, a goat, male deer. *Wel.*, *buoch*; *Gael.*, *boc*.

BUCKER. I.—A horse's hind leg. II.—A bent piece of wood (*A. S.*, *bugan*, to arch, to bend,) by which slaughtered cattle are hung up and extended before cutting out. See *Gambrel*.

Bucker-ham is the hock joint of a horse.

BUCK-HEAD. BUCK-STALL. To cut down quickset hedges to a height of two or three feet.

BUD. A yearling calf, when the horns begin to shoot.

BUFFLE. I.—To handle clumsily, as if the fingers were stuffed or blown up. II.—To speak thick and inarticulate, as if the mouth were stuffed. *Ger.*, *buffel*, blockhead; *buffeln*, to drudge.

Buffalo, 'as we say a gull or loggar-head.'—*Florio's World of Words*, 1598.

Buffle head, a dull sot, an ignoramus.—*Bailey*.

'You know nothing, you *buffle-headed*, stupid creature you.'—*Wycherly's Plain Dealer*.

It may be derived from *Fr.*, *bouffer*, to puff, swell out. *Hareng bouffi*, a full-roed herring.—*Cotgrave*, 1632. In Scotland, *buffed* herrings are salt ones steeped in water, swollen out.

'If the bones of a good skeleton weigh little more than twenty pounds, his inwards and the flesh remaining could make no *bouffage*, but a light bit for the grave.'—*Sir T. Broune's Letters*. Common in Shropshire.

BULKING. A throbbing in the flesh. In Suffolk, *bullock* or *boolk*, where *Galva* or galver (*qy. gather*, *i. e.* inflame) and *pritch*, also prevail. *Gael.*, *bolg*, to blister, swell; *Isl.*, *bulka*.

'The following is a genuine speech of an old lady:—'I ha got sitch a lamentable push, an ta *boolk* sadly, an at night ta itch and ta *pritch* an ta *gaa-alva*.' This, as delivered with the true Suffolk intonation, may be set to music.'—*Moor*.

BULL-FIEST. The common puff-ball. *Lycoperdon bovista*.—*Lin.*

Lat., *bovista*, of which it is a corrupt translation.

Called elsewhere, puck-fiest, frog-ball, mully puff, frog cheese. In Scotland, blindman's ball, Devil's snuff box.

BULLOCK. To bully. *Isl.*, *bulka*, to abuse, to bellow vociferously.

Ex., 'sobbing and *bullocking*.'

BULL'S NOON. Midnight.

'For the propriety of the term, the inhabitants of dairy counties can vouch feelingly. Their repose is often broken in the dead of the night by the loud bellowing of the lord of the herd, who rising vigorous from his evening rumination, rushes forth on his adventures, and *blores* with rage and disappointment when he comes to a fence which he cannot break through.'—*Forby*.

BULLMONG. A mixture of oats, peas, and vetches, or buckwheat.

'But rather sow oats or else *bullmong* there,

Grey peason, or runcivals, fitches or tare.'—*Tusser*.

Possibly a corruption of the *Lat.*, *pulmentum*. The Old *Fr.* has *boulimie*, extreme hunger; *It.*, *bullimo*; *Gr.*, *boulimos*; The *Dut.*, *bymengen*, to intermix.

BULLY-RAG. To revile in opprobrious terms.

Isl., *bulia*, to abuse; *ragna*, to imprecate. Gael, *bagarach*, threatening.

BULVER. To increase in bulk by being rolled over and over like snow. Applied to hay or corn collecting into increasing heaps.

Fr., *bouleverser*.

BUMBASTE, BUMBRUSH. to beat severely. Isl., *beysta*, Dan., *baste*.

BUMBLE. To muffle. 'The bells were *bumbled* at his funeral.'

Dut., *bommen*; Ger., *bummeln*.

BUMBLES. Coverings for horses' eyes more effectual than blinkers.

BUMBLE-BEE. The East Anglian name of the bee. Dut., *bommell bee*; Lat., *bombilare*. Common in the United States.

'At first I thought he was mad; but the truth flashed upon me that he had buttoned up a *bumble bee* in his pantaloons.'—*Peter Parley's Reminiscences*.

BUMBLE-FOOTED. Having a thick lumpish foot. Wel., *promplaw*.

BUMBY. A quag, quagmire. Wet, unsolid land will be thus described 'ta quail like a *bumby*.' 'A *bumby*, a deep place of mire and dung, a filthy puddle.'—*Ray's Eastern Words*.

BUMP. A punishment used amongst school boys, in which the seat of honour is brought into rough contact with a post or tree.

Isl., *bompa*, a stroke against any object; Wel., *pump*, a round mass.

Formerly, in perambulating bounds it was customary to *bump* the juniors in the procession against the boundary stones, to impress their localities more forcibly on their memories.

BUND-WEEDS. Wild centaureæ, particularly the *nigra*, Lin., much infesting grass land. A. S., *bune*.

BUNGAY-PLAY. Leading in whist all winning cards in succession, without any finesse.

BUNKAS. A crowd collected together confusedly. 'Kinder! what a *bunkas* on em.'—*Moor*. Isl., *bunki*; Dan., *bunke*, a heap.

BUNKS, also BUNNY. A rabbit.

'The origin is in the idea of striking. Bret., *bunta*; Eng., to *bunt*.—Manx *bun*, butt-end; Gael, *bun*; Prov. Eng., *bun*, the tail of a rabbit, hence *bunny*, rabbit.—Diez.

Gael, *bun-fean*, a bobtail. *Bunt*, to run like a rabbit.—*Northern dialects*.

BUNKS. The wild succory, *chicoreum intybus*, Lin.

BUNNY. A swelling caused by a fall or blow. O. Fr., *bugne*, a bump; It., *bugno*, a boil. In Essex called 'a *boine* on the head.'

BUNT. To butt with the head, to gore. 'Take care, yinder old cow *bunts*.' Bret., *bunta*, to knock, push.

BUNTING, BUNTY. Miserably mean, shabby. A wanton.—Bristol.

BURBLES. Small pimples, such as those caused by sting of nettles.

'Burbles in the water, *bubette*. To boy! up or *burbyll* up, as a water dothe in a spring, *bouillonner*—*Palæg. Fr.-Eng. Dict.*, 1530. Sp., *burbuja*; Portg., *borhulla*, a bubble, knob.

BURGAD. Yeast. Wel., *bragawd*, a fermenting.

BURR. A mistiness over and around the moon. Fr., *brouée*, mist. *bruff*, a halo—Whitby, dial.

'A far-off *brugh* tells of a near-hand storm.'—*Cumb. Saw*. 'We'll hev change seúnn, theer a *bur* aboot meúnn.'—*Id*.

BURTHEN. To charge closely and pressingly. 'Ex., I *burthened* him with it as strong as I could, but he would not confess.'—*Forby*.

BUSK. To bask, applied to poultry, game, &c. A flock of sheep.

BUSS. A kiss. Lat., *basium*; Wel., *bus*, the human lip.

BUSS. A fishing boat. O. Norse, *bússa*; Dut., *buyse*; A. S., *butse-carlas*, shipmen.

BUSSEN-BELLY. Ruptured. '*Brostyn*, or *broke*.'—*Pr. Pv. Brusten-kited*.—Whitby. A. S., *borsten*, to rupture; Cornish, *bors*, hernia; Wel., *bol*, belly.

BUTT. A flounder, so called at Yarmouth, remarks Yarrell, in his *Brit. Fishes*. Dut., *bot*.

BUTTER-TEETH. Broad and yellow teeth. The two incisors in front of the upper jaw. Dut., *botertanden*.

BYLDERS. A kind of watercress. *See Way's Pr. Pv. and Prior's Plants*.

'In a meadow I use in Norwich beset with willows and *sallows*, I have observed these plants to grow upon their heads, *bylders*, currants, &c.'—*Sir T. Browne on Grafting*.

CABOBLED. Confused, puzzled. Ex., 'Why you 'olly *cabobble* me.' Fr., *accabler*, to confound, overwhelm.

CADE of herrings. An old measure, disused. Gr., *kados*; Lat., *cadus*.

'A barrel of herryng sholde contene 1000, and a cade of herryng six hundreth, six score to the hundreth.'—*Accounts of the Cellarist of Berking Abbey*. Cade of herynge; *cada*, *lacista*, *ligatura*.—*Pr. Pv*.

CADDOW, CADDAW. A Jackdaw. Dut., *kaauw*; Gael., *Cadhagh*, *Cadha*, a jackdaw; Wel., *caw-ci*; A. S., *ceo*; Swed., *kaja*; Dan., *kaa*; Norse, *kaga*.

Chouchetto and *chouette*, a Chough *Cadesse*, Daw, Jackdaw.—*Col. Fr. Dicty.*, 1632. Randle Holmes' Acad. of Armory, 1688, has 'Jackdaw.' In some places called a *cadasse*, or choff.—*Caddow*. A jackdaw or *chough*, *Norf.*, *Bailey*.

'And as a falcon frays,
A flock of stares or *caddesses* such fear brought his assays.' *Chapman's Iliad*, xvi.
'Kill crow, pie and *cadow*, rook, buzzard and raven.'—*Tusser*.

CAIL or **CALE.** To throw. Ex., 'A *cail'd* a stone right at my hid.'—to throw weakly: a boy throws a stone, a mauther *cails* it. To move with wavering gait. A colt gambolling and throwing out its heels is 'kicking and *cailing*.' In the West Counties cock shying is called *cock-squailing*.

I have failed in meeting with any quite satisfactory derivation. *Forby* has Fr., *caillou*, flint, a common missile. There is the Gael. *cail*, a spear, *sgaoil*, to throw, scatter by hand. To this I incline. In the North a *cale* or *kale* is a turn, chance at various games, particularly at ball, in which 'its my *cale* now'; 'give me a *cale*', are common phrases. *Wilbraham, Chesh. Glos.*, gives the Flem. *kavel*, lot, as the derivation. Casting *cavels*, casting lots.—*North. Wel.*, *coel*, a lot; Norm. French, *cule*, time, season.

CALIMANCO-CAT. A glossy-skin'd, tortoise-shell tabby. Derived from the old Norwich worsted manufacture of *calimanco*, which shone like satin. *Calliminky*, a kind of cotton.—*Teesdale*; woollen,—*Cumb.*

CALLOW, CALLA, or CALLER. The surface of the land removed to dig for gravel, &c. *Uncallow*, to remove this. A. S., *calo*, *caluo*, bald. Gael., *sgailceach*, *sgallach*, bald. Dut., *kaluwe*.

CALYON and Mortar. The ordinary flint and boulder walls of the Suffolk churches. Fr., *caillou*, flint; *callierd*, a hard stone.—North.

Pr. Pv., '*calyon*, rounde stone.'

CALM, KAMMY. The settlement or scum of bottled liquors. Said also to be mothery in this state, and the scum called the *mother*. In Craven, *caind*; Wel., *cann*, white; Dut., *kaam*, mothery.

Var. of *scum*; Fr., *escume*. The Ger. has *klamm*, viscous. *Mother*, Prov. Ger., *muth*, froth, scum; Dan., *mudder*.

CAMBUCK, KEX and KISK. The dry stalks of hemlock and other dead ditch plants. Ex., '*As dry as a cambuck*.' Of legs lacking a goodly calf it is said, '*His legs are like cambucks*.'

But nettles, kix and all the weedy nation,

With empty elders grow, sad signs of desolation.—*Giles Fletcher*.

A. S., *Cammoc*, rest harrow, bog fennel; Gael., *Canach*, moss crops, *cats-tail*, &c. Until lately much used in E. A. to light pipes with.

CAMPING. An athletic game, fought out by two sides, usually of twelve each, and resembling foot ball, but much rougher. Once popular in the district it has fallen into disuse.

We abridge Major Moor's animated description of the game:—'Goals were pitched 150 or 200 yards apart, formed of the thrown off clothes of the competitors. Each party has two goals 10 or 15 yards apart. The parties 10 to 15 aside, stand in line, facing their own goals and each other, at 10 yards distance, mid-way between the goals and nearest that of their adversaries. An indifferent spectator throws up the ball—the size of a cricket ball—midway between the confronted players, whose object is to seize and convey it between their own goals. The shock of the first onset to catch the falling ball is very great, and the player who seizes it speeds home pursued by his opponents, through whom he has to make his way aided by the jostlings of his own sidesmen. If caught and held, or in imminent danger of it, he *throws* the ball—but must in no case give it—to a comrade who, if it be not arrested in its course, or he jostled away by his eager foes, catches it, and hurries home, winning the notch or *snotch* if he contrive to carry—not throw—it between the goals. A holder of the ball caught with it in possession loses a snotch. At the loss of each of these the game recommences after a breathing time. Seven or nine snotches are the game, and these it will sometimes take two or three hours to win.

It is a noble and manly sport. The eagerness and emulation excited in the competitors and townsmen are surprising. Indeed, it is very animating to see twenty or thirty youths stripped to their skin, and displaying the various energies that the game admits of; rushing with uplifted eye, breast to breast, to catch the descending ball, and all at once, running full *ding* to gain a point, and when nearly gained, half falling over the stumbling object of pursuit (for the game is always played where the grass is short and slippery) and after much scuffling to see the ball again in the air, thrown to a wily distant sidesman—and seized and carried in the contrary direction—backwards and forwards, perhaps half a score times, amid the shouting and roaring of half the population of the contiguous villages. Sometimes a large football was used, and the game was then called '*kicking camp*,' and if played with the shoes on '*savage camp*.'

Windham, the statesman, greatly encouraged it, and got up many matches at Felbrigg. He was wont to say it combined all athletic excellencies, a successful combatant requiring to be a good boxer, runner and wrestler. It appears to have escaped the attention of the Young Englandism and Muscular

Christianity of our day. Ray says, in his time it prevailed most in Norfolk, Suffolk and Essex. It was new to Sir T. Browne on his settling in Norfolk. Strutt, an East Anglian, omits it from his 'Sports and Pastimes of the English People.' A. S. *Camp*, a combat; Ger., *kampf*; Isl., *kempa*, a champion; Wel., *camp*, a feat, game; *champ*, a scuffle; Eng. dialects, *cample*, to argue—to reply perfly.—*Cumb.*; able to do.—*North.* *Campar*, or playar at foot ball; *campyon*, or champyon.—*Pr. Pv.*

CAMPING LAND was a piece of ground set apart for the game. A field abutting on the churchyard at Swaffham was willed for the purpose by the Rector in 1472. At East Bilney is a small strip or *spong* near the church called the *camping land*. At Stow Market is a large pasture still called the *camping land*. Sir John Cullum, in his 'History of Hawstead, Suffolk,' describes the *Camping-pightle* as mentioned, A. D. 1466.

'In meadow or pasture (to grow the more fine)
Let campers be camping in any of thine;
Which if you do suffer when low is the spring,
You gain to yourself a commodious thing.—*Tusser.*

'Get campers a ball
To camp therewithall.'—*Id.*

Lydgate, the Monk of Bury, compares the breast of a woman to a large campyng balle.

The gamedied away in Suffolk in consequence of two men having been killed at Easton, in their struggles at a grand match, about the close of last century.

CANCH. A lot of corn in the straw, put in a corner of the barn; a short turn or spell at anything; a trench, cut sloping; a breadth of digging land.—*Halliwell.*

CANK. Calcareous earth, any sort of limestone. *Calc*, *caulk*, *chalk*, is the substratum of a wide extent of Norfolk. Fris., *calke*.

CANKER. The common red field poppy. Otherwise called *copper-rose*, and *head ache*. *Cankers*, caterpillars.

A copper saucepan requiring tinning, is said to have the *canker fret*; *canker weed*, the *senecio iacobaea* Lin., with other kindred species, as *tennifolius* and *sylvaticus*, were formerly so rife on the commons and waste lands of Suffolk as to be gathered and burnt for potash.

CANSEY. A raised footpath or causeway, numerous in the fens and marshlands. Dut., *kantsige*; Gael., *cabhsair*; Wel., *cam*, a step.

CANT. To set up on edge (so used also in the U. S.); to throw upwards with a jerk edgeways; a jerk edgewise.

Isl., *kantr*, a side border; Dan., *kant*, edge; Wel., *cantel*, a rim; *ergo*, the part easiest broken off. Picard, *canteau*, a piece broken off the corner. In Welsh *cant* has also the meaning of a circle, hoop.

'And yet she brought her fees—a *cantle* of Essex cheese
Was well a fote thick—full of maggottes quicke.'—*Skellon.*

Cant rail, a triangular rail, of which two are cut from a square piece of timber sawn diagonally. *Cant*, a corner of a field.—*Sussex.*

CAP. To challenge. 'I'll set yeow a cap.' Capping texts or verses. To cover the object of rivalry by its equal or superior; to come up to, or outdo.

From a root in many diverse languages signifying to cover. A. S., *cæppe*, cap. Sp., *capa*, a cloak; Sc., *hap*, to cover; Turk., *kaput*, a cloak; *kepi*, a cap; Lat., *caput*; Fr., *chapeau*; Wel., *capan*; Gael., *capa*. *Capt*, crowned; beat in argument.—*Whitby*; puzzled.—*Cumb.*; surprised.—*Leeds.*

CAPPER. The hard, wrinkled, crackly crust formed on newly harrowed land by a fall of heavy rain quickly absorbed and evaporated. To chap the hands.

CAPPERED CREAM. Cream coagulated by heat, by an impure receptacle, or by exposure to a brisk current of air.

Both appear derived from the Gael, *criopag*, a ripple, *wrinkle*; *kippere* (salmon) a word which the compilers of the Scot. and Gaelic dictionaries appear unable to make anything of, would seem to be from the same root. Dan., *kippre*, to rib; Isl., *kypingr*, to crimp, to shrink together. Pigeons *cappé*, ruffed Pigeons; *cappéer*, to go very near the wind.—*Cotgr.*, 1632. *Kipper* nuts, chestnuts.—*Sherwood's Dicty.*, 1632.

CARR. A wood or grove on a swampy soil, generally of alders.

Probably from Gael, *garan*, a thicket, also underwood. Wel., *carr*, a thicket, a brake.

CAST. I.—Warped. **II.**—Yield, produce. Ex., 'How did your wheat *cast*?' a Norfolk phrase. **III.**—Cast, vomit. Common to Suffolk. 'A *cast* 'as stomach an 'as butta.' Fris., *kotsen*.

CASUALTY. The flesh of an animal that dies by chance. Ex., 'Gipsies feed on *casualties*.' 'This mutton is so pale and flabby it looks like a *casualty*.' 'He gave a bullock to the poor at Christmas little better than a *casualty*.' It should be pronounced cazzlety.—*Forby*. Lat., *casus*, accident.

Casardly, unlucky, North dialects; *caselings*, skins of beasts that die by accident. *Chesh.* *Cazelly* weather in Dorset,—stormy.

CAT. I.—A ferret. 'A cop'd cat;' a muzzled ferret. A. S., *cops*, a fetter. **II.**—A lump of meal, clay, &c., mixed with a quantity of salt placed in dove cots to allure or retain them.

'In Hants and elsewhere, a *salt-cat* is a kind of cake to entice pigeons.'—*Barnes* Dorset Dial. Wel., *cat*, a piece, fragment. O. E. *cates*, provisions.

CATCH-LAND. Border debateable land. *Catch-rogue*, a constable, or bum-bailiff.

CAVE IN. To give way at the edge. To fall into a hollow below; an accident to which any stratum incautiously excavated is liable. Fr., *cave*, a cellar; Lat., *cavare*, to dig out; *cavus*, hollow, Corn. and Breton, *cau*.

Pronounced *keve* in Suffolk, where *Moor* says the idea of an avalanche is conveyed by the word. In *Chesh.* to keeve is to overturn or to lift up a cart so as to unload it all at once.—*Wilbr.*

This old East Anglicism, reintroduced amongst us as one of the most popular and expressive of Yankeeisms, bids fair to supersede 'collapse.' American glossaries have a number of illustrations, all forcible.

'A very hungry traveller made a very expressive application of the word, by saying his stomach was so empty that he thought he should *cave in*.'—*Elwyn*.

At the late dinner Mr. W— arose to make a speech, but soon *caved in*.

—*Washington Paper*. *Bartlett*.

Cavey, a corruption of 'peccavi: 'a begun to cry *cavey*;' he began to knock under.

CAVING. Refuse unthreshed ears of corn thrown to poultry. A. S., *caef*. Gael., *catha*, husks, *caruinmean* refuse ears.

CAWF, CORF. A floating cage for keeping alive till wanted lobsters and Nancies. An Aldboro' word. An eel box.

Dut., *korf*; Ger., *korb*; Wel., *caw*, a hamper, basket. The stout travelling basket used in mines is called a *corf* or *corve*. Lat., *cophinus*.

In N. Britain a temporary building or shed is called a *corf* or *corf* house, a hole or hiding place, remarks Jamieson. Isl., *koroac*, a little hut. Compare with *Barfe*, which see.

CHADS. Husky fragments amongst food. In Low. Sc. small gravelly stones in river beds. Wel., *Cib* (ch) a husk. Gael., *cath*.

Chaddy is applied to bread made of meal not properly sifted.

CHAITS, CHATES. Broken victuals, refuse food.

Turnip *chait*s are the remains left by fattening sheep, and to which leaner stock are turned in 'to pick up the *chait*s or orts.'

'*Chat*-wood, little sticks fit for fuel.'—*Bailey*. *Chat*, a twig. Yorks.

Black thorn. *Chats*, fircones.—Whitby. Seedling ash, the keys or capsules of ash, sycamore, &c., small branches of oak, stripling boys.—Cumb.; *chaity*, careful.—Somerset; *chats*, dead sticks.—Heref.; small twigs, Derb.; *chattocks*, refuse wood.—Glouc.; small fagots.—Salop.

Chats, the young shoots or suckers, cut and faggotted.—*Forby*. Wel., *cedys*, faggots. To *chif*, to germinate, sprout. Ger., *kaize*, a bunch, the keys of a tree.

CHALDER. To crumble and fall away as the surface of cawk, gravel, &c., by the action of air. Also called *cholder* and *cholter*.

Lat., *calx*; Fr., *chault*, lime, *calciner*, to powder; Ger., *schaibar*, that may be peeled; Dan., *skaldes*, to become bald, to peel off.

CHALM. To chew or nibble into small pieces.

Books and papers are said to be *chalmed* by mice. The *l* is dropped in pronunciation.

CHAMBLE. To chew minutely. In Bucks, *chimble*. Cumb., *cheg*.

Wedgewood remarks *chamm*, *champ*, to chew, so as to make the snapping of the jaws be heard. Hung., *tsammogui*, to make a noise with the teeth in chewing. Isl., *kampa*, to chew; *kiammi*, a jaw." Gael., *cnamh*, to ruminate.

An onomatopoeia,—the most expressive form in which the word occurs is in Golding's old black letter translation of Ovid, 1587—

'When seeking long for Famine, she the gap-toothed elf did spy,
Amid a barren stony field, a ramping up the grass,
And chanking it.'

This word seems overlooked by all our glossarists. In our Southern dialects *chanks* is the underpart of a pig's head; the *chaule* of the North.

CHAP. An idle fellow. Used in a disparaging sense. Ex., 'A lolloppen chap.'

'Give servants no dainties, but give him enough,

Too many *chaps* walking do beggar the plough.'—*Tusser*.

Forby derives from Sui.-Goth., *kaeps*, one of servile condition. More probably an abridgment of *Chapman*. A. S., *ceapman*; Dut., *koopman*; one who traffics, bargains.

CHATE, CHOAT. A feast, treat, rustic merry-making, jolly frolic.

—Essex. Gael., *taite*, pleasure, delight.

CHAW, CHAW UP. To chew. 'You don't half *chaw* yar wittuls.'

'The trampling steed with gold and purple trapt,

Chawing the foamie bit, there fiercely stood.'—*Surrey's Æneid*.

A. S., *ceowan*; Dut., *kauwen*; Wel., *cerniaw*, to grind with the *chaw* or jaw.

'I heerd Tom Jones swar he'd *chaw* me up, if an inch big of me was found in them diggings in the mornin.'—*Robb, Squatter Life*.

'So doth the Devil, as that excellent and holy Martyr, Mr. Bradford, in his Sermon of Repentance saith; He will spit you, and broach you, after he hath well fed you; roast you, and eat you; champ you, and *chaw* you, and make a full meal of you, even of you that lead a voluptuous life—*Rogers' Rich Fool*.

CHECK. To taunt, reproach. Ex., 'He *checked* him by the favours he had done him.'—*Forby*. *Checked*, chapped.—Suff.

'That weake treachery was worthy of a *checke*, not a desertion.'—*Bp. Hall*

CHICE. A small portion, Essex. *Chife*, a fragment.—Suff. Fr., *chiche* niggard, sparing.—*Cotg*. A. S., *cicel*, a morsel.

CHICK. I.—A flaw, as in earthenware. II.—To crack, chap, chop, as the skin in frosty weather. III.—To germinate, as seeds or leaves in bud. Gael., *cinnich*, to sprout; Wel., *cyndrov*.

A S., *cinan*, to chink, open, gape. Loosening earth in East Anglia is called *chinking* it. A sprain in the back implying a slight separation of the vertebrae is called to *chink* it. A frequent corrupt pronunciation is *jink*. *Cherts* of grass, the first blades of spring—Cumb.; *chark*, a crack; *charkt* hands, chapped.—Craven.

CHILL. To warm anything; to take off extreme coldness by heating. 'Do you like your beer chilled.' Now an Americanism.

CHIMDY, CHIMBLY, CHIMLEY. Local corruptions of chimney.

CHINE. The part of a cask into which the head is fixed. Dut., *kim*, the barrel brim. *Chim-hoop*, the extreme iron hoop which binds the staves together.

'*Chimb* is the English for the end of a barrel.'—*Barnes' Dorset Dialect*.

Chine, is the swell in the middle of a cask.—*Var. Dial*.

CHINGLE, CHINGLY. A local form for shingle, loose gravel, pebbly beach, &c., Also *Scot.* Lat., *scendere*, to split.

CHINK. To loosen earth for planting. To cut small.

CHIP-UP. To recover from a state of weakness or depression.

Probably from *cheep-up*, *chirrup* up, as young birds. An imitative word. *Scot.*, *cheiper*, a cricket.

CHITTEBLINGS. A pig's small entrails, which fried, and eaten with sugar, mustard and vinegar, used to be reckoned a good dish.

The frill of a shirt not crimped or gathered into close plaits, but ironed flat, somewhat resembles it, and is called a *chitterlin*. When crimped the shirt frill is said to be *gofered*. Ger., *kutlein*, intestines; in Dorset, *chellens*; Belg., *schysterlingh*.—Blount.

'We make of a French ruff an English *chitterling*.—*Gascoigne*.

CHIZZLY. Harsh and dry under the teeth. Ger., *kieselig*, flinty, pebbly; Dut., *keyzel*; A. S. *ceosel*; the deriv. of *Chesil Bank*, Dorset. Gael., *clachag*. *Chysel*, or gravel.—Pr. Pv, *chizzle*, wheat-bran.—Teesdale. *Chizzel*, bran.—Sussex.

CHOBINS, chobs. Unripened grain, adhering to the husks under the flail. Wel., *cib*, a husk; *cobyn*, a tuft, bunch; Ger., *schob*, a bundle of straw.

CHOP-LOGGER-HEAD. An intense blockhead. *Chop*, to flog, Essex.

CHOVY. A small beetle, swarming like a plague of locusts in gardens and orchards in hot summers, in the sandy districts. It is common there to drive ducks and swine into the orchards and shake the insects from the trees to be devoured. Wel., *chwilan*, a beetle, chafer. *Chwyvaw*, to move, flit about, waver.

A Norfolk term for the insect. Moor says he never heard of it. Sir J. Cullum notes it in his 'History of Hawstead, Suffolk.'

CHUBBY. Angry, threatening, surly. Wel., has *chwibl*, sour, sharp.

CHUFFY. 'In our usage,' writes Forby, 'has no reference to clownishness or surliness which is given to it in all the Dictionaries. It merely means fat and fleshy, particularly in the cheeks.' In Kent, *choaty*.—Grose.

If Forby be correct, *chuffy* retains its original meaning in East Anglia

that which now a days we attach to chubby. *Joffu*, chuffy, fat-cheeked.—*Cotgr. Fr. Dict.*, 1632. A. S., *ceafas*, the chaps; Fr., *gifle*, a cheek; Fl., *chiffe*, cheek; Dan., *kiaft*. *Chuff* is, however, applied to surly, miserly persons. Ger., *schuft*, a shabby fellow.

'At length (as Fortune servde) I lighted vpon an old straddling usurer, clad in a damaske cassocke, edgde with fox-furre; a pair of trunke slops sagging down like a shoemaker's wallet, and a short thrid-bare gown on his backe fac't with moath-eaten budge: vpon his head he wore a filthy coarse biggin, and next it a garnish of nightcaps, with a sage button cap of the forme of a cow sheard, overspread verie orderly: a fat *chuffe* it was (I remember), with a grey beard cut short to the stumps, as though it were grymde, and a huge, worm-eaten nose, like a cluster of grapes hanging downwards.'—*Nash's Pierce Penilesse*.

In the Lanc. and Yorks. dialects, *chuff* is pleasurably excited, full of.

CHUMP, CHUNK. A small log of wood, root end. *Ray* gives as a Suff. word, *chuck*, a great chip. *Chumpy*, small, stunted, Linc.

Isl., *kumbr*, a stump, log.

'Provincial in England, colloquial in the U. S. To *chunk*, to throw sticks or chips at one. *Chunked*, said of any one impudent or bold. *Chunky*, short and thick.—*Bartlett's Americanisms*.

CLACK-BOX. The mouth containing a nimble tongue. Teut., *klack*.

CLAGGY. Clogged with moisture, sticky. A. S., *cleg*, clay.

Claggum, treacle made hard by boiling.—*North Anglian Dialects*.

CLAM. I.—Clamminess. Ex., 'The meat has been kept too long, and has got a *clam*,' begins to decay. A. S., *clam*; Dut., *klam*.

II.—A slut so excessively dirty that her skin looks *clammy*.—*Forby*.

CLAMM. To starve with hunger. Ex., 'I'm *clamm'd* ta dead amost.'—*Suff.* To clog up.—*Heref.* To stick, adhere.—*Glouc.*

More common in the North. From A. S., *ge-liman*, to glue together. Dut., *klemmen*; Ger., *klamm*, to pinch together. 'Clem'd or clam'd, starved, because by famine the bowels are, as it were, clam'd or stuck together.'—*Ray*.

The A. S. has also *clæmian*, to clam, to smear.—'A child *clames* the newly whitewashed wall with dirty fingers. A bill sticker *clames* up his bills.—*Yorks.*

'In the conclusion, the sprigs were all daub'd with lime, and the poor wretches *clamm'd* and taken.'—*L'Estrange's Æsop*.

CLAMBER-SCULL. Very strong ale.

CLAMP. A potato pit or hog, a rude brickhill. A. S., *clam*.

CLAMPER, CLUMPER. To make a noisy trampling in walking. *Clumpers*, very thick and heavy shoes, pattens. Fl., and Dut., *klompens*; Isl., *kumbr*, a lump; Dan., *klump-fodet*, club footed.

Applied also to a *clump* of wood, of trees, &c.

In Lanc., wooden clogs are called 'clumpers'; and in the U. S., thick-soled shoes. "The meaning of the word will be gathered from a short conversation which a minister in this county once overheard between a poor man on his death bed, and a farmer's wife who had come to visit him. 'Well,' she said, 'when yo gotten theer, yo'll may-happen see eawr Tummus, and yo'll tell 'im we'n had th' shandry mended, un a new pig-stoye built, un at we dun pratty weel beawt him.' 'Beli, me, Meary!' he answered, 'dost think at aw's ha nowt for t'do, bo go *clumpin* up un deawn t'skoies a seechin' yore Tummus?'—*Gaskell's Lanc. Dial.* *Clomperton*, one who walks heavily.—*Craven*.

CLART. To daub with syrup, juice of fruit, or the like. See *Star*.

A Scot and North country word, adhesive dirt, to smear, &c. Perthshire, *clort*; Gael., *clodach*; Dan., *klatte*; Fris., *kladdig*; Dut., *klad-den*, to blot,

spirt. 'Clarty-paps, a dirty sloven of a wife.'—Halliwell. *Clarts*, snow flakes, mud. In Linc., *clatty*, dirty. Fl., *kladdegat*, a nasty girl, a slut.

CLAUMB. To clamber in a heavy manner.

CLAUNCH. To lumber along, as if the feet were dragged through the dust to save the trouble of lifting. Ex., 'yinder go black Betty, *claunching* along in her creepers.'—North Ang., *cluntering*. Dan., *kluntet*, awkward, lumbering.

CLEAD. To clothe, *cleading*, clothing. Ger., *kleid*; A. S., *claded*.

CLEAS, CLEYES. Claws, of a lobster, &c. Ex., 'Crack the *cleas* in the hinge of the door.' A. S., *clea*, common to English dialects.

CLEAT. A thin metallic plate. Shoe heels are *cleated* with iron. A race horse's light shoe is a *clate*. A. S., *cleot*; Wel., *clwt*.

CLEPE. To call. The A. S., *cleopan*, still in use in East Anglia.

At play in the Eastern Counties boys *clape* sides at a game.

CLEVER. Handsome, good looking, healthy, tall, dexterous, adroit, applied without reference to talent or intellect.

This is a low word, scarcely ever used but in burlesque or conversation, and applied to anything a man likes, without any settled meaning.'—*Johnson's Dict.*

Clever is an instance of a dialectic colloquialism rising into our literature. Sir T. Browne, a master of the written language of his age, noted it as an East Anglian provincialism. It was used by our humourists in the seventeenth century. Butler, L'Estrange, South. Ray terms it a provincialism, and derives from O. Fr., *legier*, light, speedy. It can no longer be called so. In the eighteenth century it appears in our classic writers. Dexterous, skilful (*Addison*); just, fit, commodious (*Pope*); well shap'd, handsome (*Arbuthnot*). A. S., *gefeffast*, lively, nimble. In Scot. and the North *deliver* is used in the sense of active. Wedgewood states the provincial Danish has *klöver*, *klever* in the same sense as ours. *Det er en klöver kerl*, that's a clever fellow! Wel., *clin*, clever, compact; Sc., *cleik*, *clewch*, quick fingered; Old Eng. *cliver*, a claw; Dan., *klavre*, to scramble; Dut., *kleveren*. In short, *clever* appears to retain its primary sense of quick movement; a quality which has risen in estimation in these days of competition, implying those shewy, *catching*, outside qualities which our generation approves. A *clever* horse, a *clever* girl, a *clever* performance.

In America it is applied, write Elwyn and Bartlett, exclusively to moral qualities, as good natured, mild, well disposed, '*clever* but not *smart*;' and the definitions English *clever* and Yankee *clever* are used to indicate the precise meaning implied—English *clever* more faithfully reflecting the Yankee '*smart*.'

Clever, lusty, very well. Lanc.,—affable; South,—*clever through*, clean through straight along; Leic.,—*clever-clumsy*, *clever-boots*, used ironically in the North

'*Clever* and silly are not intellectual phenomena. 'How are you?' '*Cleverer* than I was.' 'I am getting quite *clever*.' 'Is your wife better?' 'I think she is sillier than she was.' 'She is very silly.' These are points of health.'—*Hamilton's Yorks. Dial.*

CLEVERS. Tussocks or tufts of coarse grass or rushes turned up by the plough on recent grass lands, pronounced *cluovas*.

A. S., *cleofa*, that which is cleft.

CLICKET. To chatter incessantly; Dut., *klicken*. O. Fr., *cliquette*.

'With her that will *clicket* make danger to cope.'—*Tusser*.

'Dan! my good man,' said she, 'you must eat and drink, and keep up your strength, for without it you'll do nowt. Try, that's a dear soul! And if I disturb you with my *clicketten*, tell me so, Dan! and I won't.'—*David Copperfield*.

CLIMP. To touch a polished surface with greasy fingers. Isl., *klina*, to smear. Also to steal.

CLINK and CLIP. A smart blow; both imitative sounds, the former more resonant. Dut., *klincke* and *klippen*. Isl., *klingja*, *klippa*.

CLINKERS. Small hard paving bricks, set on edge, when thrown together they do not rattle like bricks, but make a *clinking*, like metallic substances. Frisic, *klinkerts*; Dut., *klinkerds*, the common paving brick of Holland.

CLIVER. A chopping knife. A. S., *clifian*, to cleave.

CLOD. To clothe; *clodden*, clothed; *clodding*, clothing, see *clead*.

CLODGER. A book cover. 'Closere of bokys or other lyke.'—*Prompt. Parv.*, 1498. Fr., *clausure*.

CLODGE. To clog. Used by *Bp. Hall*. *Cledgy*, stiff, Kent. A. S. *clæg*, clay.

CLOGSOME. Heavy roads are so termed.

CLOG-WHEAT. A bearded species, called in Mark Lane, rivets.—*Forby*.

CLOTCH. To tread heavily, move awkwardly. Ger. *klotsig*.

CLOUT. A heavy cuff. Dut., *klotsen*, to strike. A *cleat*, which see.

CLOW. A slice of bread, cheese, &c.—*Moor*.

CLUNCH. A name given to the lower and harder beds of the cretaceous (chalky) rocks. It has been largely used in the interior work of East Anglian Church architecture; soft when quarried, it hardens with exposure.

CLUNCHY. Short, thick and clumsy. Dut., *klumtet*.

CLUNG. Shrunk, dried, shrivelled, juiceless, from evaporation. Said of apples, turnips, carrots, &c. A. S., *clingan*, to wither. *Clungy*, sticky.—*Leeds*.

'Who would have thought to have found the wit of Pierce so starved and *clunged*.'—*Gab. Harvey's Pierce's Supererogation*, 1593.

CLUTCH. A brood of chickens, a covey of partridges. In Lanc., *clatch*. Dan., *klekke*, to hatch. Isl., *klekka*. North Ang., *cletch*.

CLUTTER. Confusion, disorder, *not* used in the sense of noise or bustle as in clatter. Wel., *cludwair*, a heap. An Americanism.

In Lanc., when things are heaped higgledy piggledy, 'They're aw in a *clutter*.'—Yorks., *cluther*.—*Clutter-up*, to crowd together in disorder.

'And foully wallowing in *clutter'd* blood.'—*Phineas Fletcher's Purple Island*.

COACH-HORSE. A dragon fly.

COARSE. Opposed to fine, as applied to weather. Ex., 'It is a very *coarse* morning.' One of the most characteristic East Anglicisms, specially met with on the sea coast.

Formerly written *course*, ordinary; Lat., *cursus*, in the usual common way. Both words have depreciated; thus, very ordinary is now very common, plain.

COATHY. Surly, easily provoked. Var. of *cothy*.

Cothish, morose, Norf.—*Bp. Kennett's Gloss. Coll., Lands. M.S.*

COB. I.—A sea-gull. II.—A young herring. III.—Clover head, containing the seed: separating these from the straw or *stuwva* is called *cobbing*. IV.—A seed *cob* or *lib* is a wicker basket used in sowing. V.—A small, compact, punchy, powerful little horse.

All these, with the exception of the last, are local, differing from the multiplicity of dialectic meanings attached to this word. No. I. is the Frisic *kob*, *seekob*. II.—See Note, page 399. III.—From the A. S., *cop*, top, tuft; Wel., *cob*. IV.—*Cob*, a basket, is from the Lat., *corbis*; A. S., *cyp*, a measure; *cypa*, a basket. V.—*Cob* may be from the Wel., *cwb*, compact, a small mass. *Cob* also was used for a rich, miserly person, ex.—

And of them, all *cobbing* country chuffes, which make their bellies and their bagges theyr gods, are called rich *cobbes*.—*Nash's Lenten Stuff*. Wel., *cybyz*, covetous, grasping.

COBLE. A fishing boat, sharp in the brow, with square stern and flat bottom. A. S., *cuople*, a small ship.

COBBLES. I.—Round paving stones, any small pebbly substance. II.—Fruit stones.

Wedgewood derives from the sound of pebbles rolling on a beach, as pebble, from Dan. *pibl*, to purl; Dut., *kabbelen*, to beat, as water against a bank or shore. Is not *cobble* rather a diminutive of *cob*, a lump, round mass; Wel., *co*, a rounding; *cobyn*, a small bundle, mass? In Cornwall, the girls who break the tin ore into small pieces are called *cobbers*; Wel., *cob*, a thump, whence the game of *cob-nut*.

COB-IRONS.—The andirons on which wood was burnt in large grateless fireplaces. Also called Dogs.

Ray says *cob-iron* is an Essex and Lanc. word.

COBWEB-MORNING. 'A misty morning, *Norfolk*.'—*Bailey*. Copweb-weather, misty weather.—*Forby*. A. S., *atter-cop*, a spider.

COCK-BRUMBLE. The hawk's-bill bramble, from its curved spines. *Rubus fruticosus*, Lin.

COIT. To toss up the head. Of an affected minx it is said, 'she *coits* up her head above her betters.'

Jamieson derives from the Isl., *kita*, violentu jactare. There is the Wel. *coeth*, to talk pertly. O. Fr., *cuidier*, to conceit, guess, presume; *coint*, spruce, fine, tricked up.

COLDER, COSH. Broken ears of corn. See *Cavings* and *cosh*.

COLD-CHILL. An ague fit.

COE. An odd old fellow.—*Norfolk*.—*Grose*.

COOK-EEL. A sort of cross bun made and eaten in *Norfolk* during Lent. Dut., *koekje*, a little cake.

'A New Year's *cookey* is a peculiar cake made only in New York, and at the Christmas Holidays. In the olden time, each visitor on New Year's day was expected to take one.'—*Bartlett's Americanisms*.

COLLAR, COLLOW. I.—To sully with soot or coal dust. Chesh., *colly*. II.—Black smut from the chimney bars. A. S., *col*, coal; Isl., *kala*, to smut. *Colley*, a blackbird.—*Somerset*.

COLLOQUE. To confer together for mischievous purposes. 'Kinda' cries out a farmer at a flock of rooks, which he apprehends have a bad design on his corn fields—'see them there toads *colloquing* together.'—*Moor*. Cor. of Lat. *colloquer*. Yorksh., *colloge*.

'Unconscionable miscreants care not how they *collogue*, whom they slander for a private advantage.'—*Bp. Hall's Contemplations*.

'If you are Religious, and frequent the church and the sacraments, you're an Hypocrite; and without this, you're an Atheist, or an Heretick. If you are Gay, and pleasant, you pass pleasantly for a Buffoon; and if Pensive and reserv'd, you are taken to be soure, and Censorious. Courtesy is called *colloguing* and Currying of Favour.'—*L'Estrange's Quevedo*.

COLT. Any person in a parochial or public office attending a public meeting for the first time is called a *colt*, and must be *shod*, pay a forfeit of liquor. Ex., 'We shall have a good frolic to-day; we have four *colts* to *shoe*.'—*Forby*.

COME-BACK. A guinea fowl—a resemblance to its harsh cry.

COMPANY-KEEPER. A lover. Old Fr., *Compagner*, etre en commerce, ou en familiarité avec une femme.—*Roquef, Gloss*.

COOMS. High ridges on bad roads between the ruts and horse path. Wel., *cwm*, a cup shaped depression in the hills, a valley or dale, a hollow, shelter, dingle. A. S., *combe*.

Elsewhere, *Combe* implies a valley. The coomb of corn (and formerly of coals in Norfolk) seems to mean a heap. Lat., *cumulus*. The *comb* of a bird its crest.—*A. Gurney*.

Comb, the balk or narrow slip which is left in velling the land.—*Devon. Dial.*
Combe, a little valley opening into a larger one.—*Pulman's East Devon. Dial.*

Combe can hardly be strictly implied to denote a valley. Its Celtic deriv. gives its precise meaning—a hollow or depression in the bosom or sides of the hills. The *combes* round Bath, as *Lyncombe*, are placed in ledges below the hill tops, but lying above the valleys beneath.

CONEY-LAND. So light and sandy as to be fit for nothing but breeding rabbits. A common jest is that it may be ploughed with two rabbits and a knife.—*Forby*.

CONKERS. Snail shells. Lat., *concha*, a shell.

CONSTABLE. a great coat. Also called a *consloper*:

COPE. I.—A large quantity, or great number. Lat., *copia*. II.—To chop, exchange, chaffer, barter, deal. Used by the coasters of Norfolk and Suffolk. A. S., *ceapian*; Dut., *copen*; Isl., *kampa*.

COPPER-ROSE. Fr., *couperosé*; Lat., *cupri rosa*. See *Canker*.

Ray, in his North country words has '*coprose*, called also *Head-Wark*, the *Papaver rhæas*.' In Scotland, cock-rose is any wild poppy with a red flower.

COPPLE CROWN. A tuft of feathers on the head of a fowl. *Coppling*, unsteady, in danger of falling or tipping over. Wel., *cop*, top of anything. Dan., *kop*, head.

CORNY. I.—Abounding in corn. II.—Tasting well of malt.

III.—Tipsy. Goth., *kaur̃n*; Isl., *kiarni*; Dut., *keerne*.

Ex. II. 'Now I have dronke a draught of *corny* ale,

By God I hope I shal you tell a thing

That shal by reson ben at your liking.'—*Chaucer*.

Ex. III. 'A common word for a common condition in New England'—*Elwyn*.

CORRUPTED. Ruptured. Suff.

COSH. The husk, or outer bark of corn, particularly wheat. 'White wheat in a red *cosh*,' is a favourite local variety, *Forby*. Gael., *cochull*, husky. Fr., *cosse*.

COSTLY. Costive.

COST or COAST. Ribs of cooked meat. Ex., 'Do you choose shoulder or *coast*.' Lat., *costa*, a rib; Wel., *cyost*, side; Gael., *alios*.

Moor remarks—'this word we hear from educated and travelled people.'

COTHISH, COTHY. Faint, sickly. Wel., *coth*., sick; A. S., *cotho*.

Applied in *Hampshire* to rotten sheep. *Coathe*, to bane, applied to sheep.—*Somerset*. *Cooth*, a cold. *Kotched a cooth i'* his limbs.—*Salop*. *Coathe*, to swoon.—*Lin.*

'So fel sche with childe, and sche went onknowing hir tyme fro Seynt Petirs onto Lateran. Hir *cothys* fel upon hir betwix the Collise and Seynt Clement Chorch.'—*Copgrave's Chronicle*.—*Story of Pope Joan*.

'And this was kept ful grete councele fro the emperoure, seying that he deyed in a *cothe*.'—*Capgrave*.

COT. I.—A covering for a cut thumb or finger. II.—A shovel handle.

DUT., *kot*, 'widely used, says Wedgewood, in that language, in the sense of hollow receptacle, *cavum*, *loculamentum*. Gael., *cos*, handle, haft.'

COZEY. Snug, comfortable, warm. Gael., *coiseag*, a small nook or corner. *Coiseagach*, snug; Isl., *kios*, a small place well fenced. Common in Scotland.

COUCH-HANDED. Left handed. Fr., *gauche*. Devon, *couchy-h*.

COUSIN. Nephew or niece. 'Pandaros calls Cressida his cousin, who was, however, his niece.'—*Forby*. See *kinsman*.

COUSIN BETTY, COUSIN TOM. A bedlamite or rather an impudent vagrant pretending to be such.

Forby says, 'they were wont to enter the sitting-room of a family, having first ascertained that there was nobody in it but women and children, with whom they claimed kindred.'

COWL. A tub, Essex.—*Ray*. Dan., *köle*, to cool.

Or the root may exist in the Romance dialects, Lat., *colligere*; O. Fr., *cuieller*, to collect; Pg., *colher*; Sp., *colodra*, a milk pail.

COW MUMBLE. The cow parsnip. *Heracleum sphondyleum*, Lin.

COW-TONGUED. Having a tongue smooth one way, and rough the other, as purpose serves.

COXY ROXY. Merry and fantastically tipsy.

COY. A coop for lobsters.—Suf. Dut., *kouw*, a cage.

CRAB-LANTHORN. A pasty of the apple-jack species, which see.

CRAKE, CRACK. To brag, boast. Dut., *kraaken*.

'Two good haymakers, worth twenty *crakers*.'—*Tusser*.

He says we are but *crakers*,

He calleth vs England men strong harted lyke an hen.—*Skelton*.

CRACK. Something to boast of. Ex., 'She is the *crack* of the village. II.—A very short time. 'It was done in a crack.'

CRAMPLED. Affected by cramps. Isl., *kreppa*, to contract; Ger., *krumpen*; Sw., *krympa*. In Suff., creepled is compressed, squeezed. 'A stack *creeples* when it falls away from irregular pressure.

CRANE-GUTTED. Very thin, herring gutted.

CRATCH. An old Suffolk word for manger. Old Fr., *crèche*.

'And in that infancie of that Church having found it (though as the wise men Christ in the *cratch*) why did they so adore it?—*Rogers' Lost Groat*.

CRAWLY MAWLY. In a weakly, ailing state. Indifferently well.

Conveys the idea of being able only to crawl on hands and knees.

CREEK. A servant, Suf. It., *creato*, a servant, from *crier*, to rear.

CREEPERS. I.—Low pattens on iron stumps. II.—Grapnel hooks.

I.—A. S., *creopan*; Du., *kruipen*. II.—Gael., *crub*, a claw, fang.

CREEPLE. A cripple. *Creeples*, nervous fidgets, uneasy twinges.

'The place must be frequented whence these waters flow, there must be a coming, and (with those *creeples*) a waiting about the Poole, if we would have comfort.'—*Rogers' Lost Sheep*.

CRIBLE. A finer sort of bran, a second sifting. Wel., *crib*, to comb, rake; Gael., *criathair*, to sift. O. Fr., *crible*.

CRICKLE, CRUCKLE. To bend under a weight, to sink through pain or weakness. Ger., *kriechen*, to creep, crawl. Lanc., *cruttle*.

CRIMBLE. To creep about privily, to sneak, wind about unperceived. To *crimble-i'-the-poke*, to fly from an agreement, act shabbily. A. S., *crymbig*, crooked; Wel., *crom*.

CRIMP. A dealer in coals. Norf.

CRINKLE, CRUNKLE. To wrinkle, twist, plait or rumple. Frisio and Dut., *kronkelen*; Dan., *kringel*. Also to shrink.

Holloway gives crinkle, crunkle, to *wrinkle*, *cringle*, *crangle*, zigzag, as Norfolk, Suffolk and Hampshire words.

CRISH, CRUSH. Soft bones or cartilage yielding easily to the teeth.

CROAT. A bottle. Suff.—Isl., *krus*; Dut., *kroes*, a drinking vessel.

CROCK. In Suffolk, the plate or bricks of a fireplace, 'as black as the *crock*.' To *crock*, Essex; to black one with soot. *Crocks*, sooty flakes falling from chimney tops. Dut., *roet*, soot; *rook*, smoke. Isl., *rok*; Sw., *rok*, smoke. An Americanism.

CROME. A crook, a staff with hooked end for drawing weeds out of ditches, &c. Dung-cromes, turnip cromes, &c. Dut. and Fl. *krom*; Gael., *crom*.

CRONE. An old ewe that has lost its teeth. Dut., *kronie*. Crav., *crock*.

'In travelling homeward, buy forty good *crones*,
And fat up the bodies of those seely old bones.'—*Tusser*.

CROODLE. To lie close and snug, as pigs or puppies in their straw.

Dimin. of *crowd*, to press. *Croodle*, to crouch like frightened chickens at sight of a bird of prey.—Wilb. Chesh. Hartshorne in his *Salopia Antiqua*. has 'to bend over the fire in cold weather, to herd together like fowls in the wet.

CROONCH. To encroach.

CROTCH. Forked, the meeting of two arms of a tree; the junction of the thighs. Fr., *croc*, a hook; Dut., *krook*.

'A lesson good, save *crotches* of wood.'

However ye scotch, save pole and *crotch*—*Tusser*.

Of a long-legg'd person it is said he has plenty of *crotch-room*.

CROTCHED. Cross, peevish, perverse. *Crotch-boots*, water-boots; *crotch-bound*, lazy; *crotch-tail*, a kite; *crotchety*, U. S. *crotchical*.

CROTCH-TROLLING for pike, practised by poachers in the Broad and Norfolk rivers. No rod is used, but a reel; and with the help of a *crotch-stick* the bait is thrown some distance in the water, and drawn gently home.

CROUCE. To catterwaul, to provoke. Fr., *courroucer*.

CROWD-BARROW, CRUDDEN-BARROW. A wheel-barrow, crowded or shoved along. A. S., *cread*; Dut., *kruyden*, to thrust. *Crudded* milk, curdled.

'She sent my mother word by Kate, that she should come hither when God sent time, though she should be *crodd* in a barrow,'—*Letter of Margery Paston*, A.D. 1477.

'Which it does, not by shoving or driving it forwards, as a slouch does a crowd-barrow.'—*Fairfax*.

CROW-KEEPER. A boy employed to scare crows from new sown land.

'Then stir about, Nicol, with arrow and bow,
Take penny for killing of every crow.'—*Tusser*.

Lear exclaims, 'that fellow handles his bow like a crow-keeper!' a passage which wonderfully obfuscated the early commentators.

Crow-time, evening; when rooks fly homeward.

CRUMP, CRUMPY. Brittle, dry-baked; easily cracking; surly. Gael., *crup*.

'When the workman took measure of him he was *crump*-shoulder'd, and the right side higher than the left.'—*L'Estrange's Æsop*.

'He with the Flat Nose is Socrates; the little *crump* shoulder'd Wretch was the Famous Aristotle; and T'other there the Divine Plato.'—*L'Estrange's Quevedo*.

CRUMPLEN. I.—A diminutive mis-shapen apple. II.—A little deformed person. Dimin. of A. S., *crump*, crooked. Wel., *crum*.

CUDDLE. To fondle, embrace, press to the bosom.

Mr. Wedgewood derives from *cruddle*. The Rev. J. Davies, in his admirable paper on the Dialect of Lanc., *Phil. Sy. Trans.*, 1855, p. 230, from Wel., *cuddio*, to hide, cover. Still nearer seems the Wel. *cudawl*, hovering about; *cudeb*, fondness, affection.

CULCH. Norf. and Essex. In Suf. *gulsh*, thick dregs or sediment.

At Colchester, the word is thought to have been derived from the oyster trade, in which it is applied to the refuse. In the Devon dialect, *cauch* is a disgusting mixture or mess. Gael., *sailch*, filth, impure dregs or sediment.

CULP. A hard and heavy blow. Ger., *kolbe*, a club, mace; Dan., *kolb*, butt-end; *culpy*, thick set, short.

CULPIT. A large lump of anything. Qy. a cor. of *collop*.

Wedgewood says, 'collop from *clop* or *colp*, the sound of a lump of something soft thrown on a flat surface. 'Coip, a blow, a bit of anything.'—*Bailey*. In like manner we have *dab*, a blow, and a lump of something soft, a *pat* with the hand, and a *pat* of butter, &c.

CULVER. To beat and throb in the flesh. As a sore advances to suppuration it bulks and *culvers*. In Suf., *galver*; Dan. *skielve*, to tremble, shiver; Swed., *skälfva*, to palpitate; A. S., *scylfan*, to waver.

CULVER-HEADED. A stack thatched with straw is said to be culver-headed. C. Bret., *kóló*, straw; *kólóa*, to cover with straw; *kóloën-vara*, a thatched summit. Stupid.

CULVER-HOUSE. A pigeon house. A. S., *culfre*, a dove.

'Or as the *culver*, that of the eagle is smitten.'—*Chaucer*.

CUMLED. Cramped, stiffened with cold. 'Oumbly-cold, stiff with cold.' An Old Eng. form of *clumsy*. Scot., *cumbered*, benumbed.

'Pl. Dut., *Klamen*, *Klomen*, to be stiffened with cold. Isl., *Klumsa*, suffering from cramp. 'Havi de froide, stiffe, *clumpse*, benumbed.'—*Cot. Fr. D.*, 1632. *Aclumsid*, benumbed with cold. Frisic, *beklond*; Dut., *verklemd*. *Comelyd*, for colde.'—*Prompt. Parv.*, 1440. In *Mr. Way's* note on the word, occur the following illustrations:—'Our hondes ben a-clumsid.'—*Wickliffe's New. Test.* 'Thou clomeest for cold.'—*Piers' Ploughman*. An old M.S. Eng. Lat. Lexicon dated 1483, the Cath. Ang. written apparently in the N.E. of Eng. has '*clumsyd*,' eivratius (cold) and later on '*cumbyrd* ubi (see) *clumsyd*' Earlier, the Pr. P. has 'a-comelyd for coulede, or a-clomnyde (acomyrd, P. a-combred.)

CURREL. A rill or drain. Dimin. of *current*. Lat., *currere*.

If from the sound, the Gael. *corrghuil*, murmuring.

CUSHION-MAN. A chairman.

CUSTARD. The pat on the hand inflicted by a schoolmaster's ferula or pater. The Sc. *palmie*.

CUTE. Shrewd, sharp, quick in apprehension. Ex., 'A's a *cute* chap. A very common Americanism, of East Anglian origin.

In opposition to Mr. Forby, we incline to the Lat. der. of *acutus*, rather than the A. S., *cuth*.

CUYP. To stick up. Dut., *kuipen*.

DABBY. Moist and adhesive, like wet linen. Dab, a blow. Dut., *dabbelen*, to splash. Also to bob up and down.

Dut., *Dobber*, a fishing float, whence *dobberen*, to rise and fall with the wave. Hence is derived the name of the waterfowl, the *dab-chick*. A dab hand, a dabbler, quick, doing things at a stroke. *Dab*, in its sense of to peck or pierce is applied to *dibbling* holes in furrows for seed, and dibbling implements were originally called *dabs*. Fl., *dabben*.

DAD, DADDY. Father; a word ignored by the march of refinement. Wel., *tad*; Lapl., *dadda*.

'Dad, mam, and porridge; Father, mother and broth; Pa, ma, and soup.'

DAFTER, DARTER, and DOWTER. A daughter. *Darter* is Essex, and has migrated to New England.

DAG. Dew, to bedew. *Dag of rain*, a slight misty shower. *Daggy*, dewy. In Norfolk, a shower of rain is called 'a *dag* for the turnips;' water *dogs* are light watery clouds; the 'sun *dog*,' a light spot near the sun indicating rain. Sw., *dag*, dew; Dan., *dugge*; Old Norse, *dögg*, *deigr* rain; Lanc., *doage*, wet, damp. 'Meety, *daggly* weather like.'—Shropsh.

The word which a Lancashire man employs for sprinkling with water is 'to *deg*,' and when he *degs* his garden he uses 'a *deggin*-can.'—*Gaskell*.

DAGGLED, DAGGED. Slashed, torn, ragged. Bret., *dag*, to stab; Fr., *daguer*; It., *daga*, whence *dagger*. *Dag-prick*, a triangular spade.

'*Dagge* of cloth, fractillus.' *Promp. Parv.* Chaucer satirizes in his *Parson's Tale*, 'pounsed and *dagged* (slashed) clothing.' His begging Friar, in the *Somnoure's Tale*, craves 'a *dragon* of your blanket, leve dame.' A. S., *daag*, anything loose, dangling. A bed covering was termed a *dagswayne*—'some have longe thrumys and jagges on both sides, some but on one.' Harrison writing in Essex, in the days of Elizabeth, relates the old men of his village used to say, 'our fathers have lien full oft vpon straw palletts, on rough mats covered onelie with a sheet under coverlets of *dagswain* or hop harlots, and a good round log vnder their heads instead of a bolster.'

'Never sorry lass so pitifully aweary of her ragged petticoat and *daggled tail*.'—*Gabriel Harvey's Pierce's Supererogation*, 1593.

DAG-LOCKS. Clotted locks hanging in dags or jags at a sheep's tail. Called, also, *Taglocks* and *Claglocks*.

'Would it not vex thee, where thy sires did keep,

To see the dunged folds of *dag taylor's* sheep.'—*Bp Hall's Satires*.

Daglets, icicles, from their pointed appearance.—*Halliwel*. Called in Northamptonshire, *daggers*.—*Baker*. In later years the original sense of *daggle* was merged and obscured in that of *dragging* (A. S., *drag-an*, Sw., *draga*; Dut., *trecken*), a trailing of the clothes in wet grass or mire. The original term, although its derivation is forgotten, exists still in most of our

provincial dialects. A *dragged-tailed trollop* is a comprehensive epithet for the wearer of skirts and petticoats tattered and torn, splashed and dirty. In Dorset dial., *Dag* is a small projecting stump. Chill-dag, a chilblain.

DALLOP. I.—A patch of ground among growing corn where the plough has missed. II.—Rank tufts of corn on the old sites of manure heaps. III.—A parcel of smuggled tea. IV.—A slattern, *var.* of *trollop*. V.—A clumsy lump of aught tossed about. VI.—To paw, toss and tumble about.

Wel., *talp*, a lump, protuberance. Isl., *dalpa*, to give one light blows. *Dolpr*, a lump, 'and sometimes used as dumpy and thick, said in daily speech of a bouncing new born child.—*Jonsson's Oldnordisk Ordbog*.

DAM A marsh, called also drowned-land.—Suf.

DAME. Once applied to ladies of high rank. Now, says Forby, only to the lowest. It would be very offensive used to a farmer's wife.

DAMNIFIED. Indemnified. Ex., 'Teent nawn to him—he's *damnified*.'

DANGEROUS. Endangered. Ex., 'He's sadly—badly; quite *dangerous*'.

DANK. Moist, damp, as regards weather, the grass, &c. 'A *dank* rafty morning. Ger., *tunken*, to steep; Dut., *donker*, dark.
'*Dank* ling forgot, will quickly rot.'—*Tusser*.

A synonyme of damp. In Yorkshire, when wool is damp and fusty, it is called *donky* or thonky. A worthy clothier went to London to buy wool. Having visited a large establishment, he pronounced the fleeces to be *donky*. 'Donkey!' cried the indignant merchant. 'Donky,' replicated the purchaser, while he still smelt at and pulled into pieces the wool.—*Rev. R. Winter Hamilton's Dialect of Yorkshire*.

DANS. Yearling lambs. When cut, they become *wedders*. In their second year, *Hogs* and *Hoggets*. One, two or three *shear* sheep denotes respective ages. *Shearlings*, the period between the first and second shear. *Crones*, are old ewes which have lambed and lost their teeth.—*Moor*.

Gael., *uan*; Bret., *oan*, a lamb. In Vannes, *duemm*, a kid.

DARE. To pain, afflict. Essex.—*Ray*. A. S., *daru*, hurt.

DARNOCKS, DANNOCKS. Hedger's gloves of thick leather.

Gael., *dornag*, a gauntlet, glove, from *dorn*, fist. Manx, *dornaty*, a covering to guard the hand against thorns.—*Cregeen*. A convenience we should little expect to have been adopted by a people in the condition of the Celts.—*Wedgewood*. Isl., *dornikur*, stiff boots for wading in water.

DARK-HOUR. The evening twilight. The gloaming.

DARNED. I'll be. An Essex oath, of wide currency in America.

DASH. To abash. Pl. Dut., *dwas*; A. S., *dwæs*, stupid from fright.

DAUBER. In the large barns and farm buildings of East Anglia, artificers in *wattle and daub*,—a mixture of clay or mud with stubble or short straw, well beaten and incorporated, sometimes strengthened with laths and hazels,—were formerly in great request. *Daubing* was very durable, lasting forty or fifty years. In Suffolk it was employed also for fences.. O. Fris., *dauber*, to beat.

Tusser calls the process *Tampring*. The Bible speaks of 'daubing with untempered mortar.' *Dawber* or cleyman,—*Pr. Parv*.

Tapia, Sp., a mud wall; Lomb., *tabia*, a poor hut; prob. of Eastern origin. Turk. Ar., *tabiah*, rampart, bastion — *Diez*.

DAUNT. To stun, knock down. Fr., *dompter*, to subdue.

DAZE, DAZLE, DAURE. To dazzle, to stun. A. S., *dagan*, to brighten, dazzle; Dut., *daesen*, to be stupified; Pl. Dut., *dösig*, dizzy.

‘Whereby I learne that grievous is the game

Which follows fansie dazed by desire.’ — *Gascoigne's Flowers*.

Dawzey is a Suffolkism. Ex., ‘*A dawzey hiddid fellah*.’ *Dozzled* is another variation; which see. DAUSEY-HEADED. Giddy and thoughtless. — *Grose*.

Var. of *daze*, applied in U. S. to old people whose faculties are failing

Dased has also the North Ang. sense of stupified from cold or exhaustion. Isl., *dasdr*, faint, tired.

DEAL-TREE. Fir tree. *Deal apples*, fir cones.

DELK, DALK. A dimple. A cavity or dent in the soil, the flesh, or any surface which should be smooth. Isl., *dala*, a dint.

Pr. Pm. *dalke*, vallis.

DAWL. A cat, to coax it. Dut. *dauncelen*, to play with, fondle.

DEKE, DIKE, DELF. A ditch, or drain. A. S., *dic*, a ditch; *delfan* to dig; *deke-holl*, a hollow or dry ditch; A. S., *holian*, to excavate.

DENES or DUNES. The sandy tracts on the East Anglian coast. Old Fr *dunes*; Dut. *duynes*, sand-hills by the seaside; Gael, *duin*, to shut in, surround; *dún*, a heap; Fris., *döhne*, a sand hillock.

DENT. The worst of anything—the pinch. After a loud clap of thunder, a woman says, ‘Tis all over. I knew that was the dent of it.’ — *Moor*. A. S., *dynan*, to make a noise.

DERE. Dire, sad. *Derely*, direly. A. S., *der-ian*, to hurt.

DEVLIN. The species of swallow, called the swift. *Hirundo apus*, Lin. Also a fretful, troublesome woman.

DEVILTRY. Aught unlucky, offensive, hurtful, or hateful.

DEVING-POND. One whence water is drawn for domestic use, by dipping a pail. *Deve*, to dive, dip; A. S., *duflan*.

DEUSAN. A hard keeping apple, which shrivels and turns pale. Hence the simile, ‘pale as a *deusan*.’

Any hard fruit, according to Minshew. Gael., *deuchainn*, hard.

DEW-BEATERS. Coarse and thick shoes to keep out wet.

DEW-DRINK. The first beer given to harvesters before they commence.

DFABLES, DIABLES. Difficulties, embarrassments. N. Fr., *dibille*, disabled.

DICKY, DICK-UP. An ass. *Dickey ass*, a male ass; the female a Jenny or a Betty ass. *Dik-kop*, Flem., is thick-skull.

DICKY-BAHD. The general term for any small bird in East Anglia.

‘All little birds are by children called Dicky-birds. We have Jack Snipe, Jack Daw, Tom Tit, Robin Redbreast, Poll Parrot, a Gill-Hooter; a Magpie is always called Madge; a Starling, Jacob; a Sparrow, Phillip; a Gold Finch, Jack Nicker; and a Raven, Ralph. — *Wilbraham's Cheshire Glossary*.

Moor adds, we have also Jack Curlew, Jenny Wren, Betty Tit, and King Harry, the Goldfinch.

DICK-A-DILVER. The herb periwinkle. Lat., *per vinced*, *per*, about, and *vincere* to bind, having formerly been used for chaplets.

Forby derives from the O. E., *delving*, A. S., *delfan*, 'from its rooting at every joint and spreading' More probably from its abounding in East Anglia in the delves or ditches. '*Delph* and *delf*,' common terms in the Fens-lands.

DIDAPPER. The little Grebe, also known as the *dab-chick*, the *dive-an-dop*, *divy-duck*, &c., Sw. *doppa*, to dip.

'Such *dydoppers* must be taken vp, els theile not stick to check the King.'—*Pap with a Hatchet*, 1589. 'The *diveandop*, to slepe.'—*Skelton*.

DIDDY The female breast of milk, the *titty*. Wel., *didi*, a nipple, teat, or paps. Ir., *did*.

DIDDER. To quiver with the chin through cold. Dut., *sidderen*, to shiver; Wel., *sigaw*, to shake; Isl., *titra*.

'*Dyderyn*, for colde.'—*Pr. Pv.* *Didder* for cold, to say an ape's Pater-noster.—*Cotgr.* *Didder* to ding or dunt (blunt) with cold.—Dorset. *Dother* and *dilher*, to tremble. North Ang., Heref. and Northampt., *Dodder*.—*Whitby*.

DIDDLE. Dimin. of dawdle.

DIDDLES, DIDDINGS. Young ducklings or sucking pigs.

DIDALL. A spade used for ditching, &c. in the marshes.

'A sickle to cut with, a *didall* and crome

For draining of ditches that noyes thee at home.'—*Tusser*.

Mavor, in his Notes to *Tusser*, ed. of 1812, describes a *diddall* as a triangular spade for cutting and banking up ditches where the soil is loose. The *crome* (see *CROME*) resembles a dung rake, and is used for drawing out the weeds, flags, &c., cut from the bottom of the ditch. At the back of Yarmouth the *dydle* is in use and well known. '*Dydleing* mash ditches,' cleaning or faying them. A *dydleing* machine was used for cleaning rivers. *Grose* has '*Didal*,' a triangular spade as sharp as a knife. Called also a *dag-prick* (see *DAG*) in Norfolk and Essex. Sw. *dja*, mud, *dallra*, to shake, *dela* to deal out. The Bret. has *didala*, to remove the bottom of aught.

DILLS. The paps of a sow. 'More pigs than *dills*,' a Suffolkism. Dan., *di*; Norse, *dili*, to suckle.

DILVER. To weary with labour or exercise.—*Forby*. Dilvered, confused, heavy, unwell, out of sorts.—*Moor*. Worn out with watching.—*Grose*.

Possibly from A. S., *thyldian*, to endure, suffer. Ger., *dulden*; Fris., *dylle*.

DINDEL. Sow-thistle, probably cor. of *dandelion*. *Dyndelyn*.—*Pr. Pv.*

DING. I.—To throw, hurl. Ex., 'I *ding* it at him.' In Essex, sling.

Is., *dengia*, to hammer. A. S., *denegan*, to strike; Dan., *dænge*; Sw., *dänga*.

'The *ding-thrift* heir, his shift-got sum mispent'—*Hall's Satires*, B. IV.

'We, in this age, count him a heathen divine, that allegeth any illustration out of human authors, and makes not all his sermons concloutments of Scripture. Scripture we hotch-potch together, and do not place, like pearl and gold lace on a garment, here and there to adorn, but pile it, and *ding* it up on heaps, without use or edification.'—*Nash's Christ's Tears*.

'Her alabaster walls were all furred, and some painted, with the bespraying of men's brains *ding* out against them.'—*Nash's Christ's Tears*.

II.—A blow, to beat, violent movement. Ex., 'I could not *ding* it into him.' 'A clapp't spurs to 'a's hoss, and awah 'a went full *ding*.' *Ding-doulers*, finery in dress.—*Suf*.

DINGE. To rain mistily, to drizzle. Used in the sense of *dingy* weather. Isl., *dyngja*, to rain in torrents; Dan., *dynd*; Fris., *duge*; mire, slosh; Wel., *dihinez*, showery.

Dingin, showery. 'Weather unfit to hoe wheat in, as the weeds do not die.'

DINGLE. to drizzle. 'Dew it rain?' 'No ta ded *dingle* just now.'

DIP. A sauce of melted butter, vinegar, and sugar for the famous Norfolk dumplings.

DISCOMFRONTLE. To discomfit in an affronting manner.—*Forby. Dyscounfortyn.*—*Fr. Pv.*

DISOBLIGE. To stain or sully. A romp *disoblige*s a young lady's white frock.

DO, DON'T. Used in Norfolk in a remarkably elliptical sense, Ex., 'Has the postman called? I *don't* know; du there's no letters for you.' 'Shet yin gate, Jim bor, *don't* them pigs 'll get out.'—*Gillett.*

DOATED. Decayed, rotten, applied to timber. Common also in the U.S. Ger., *dotteren*, to totter. Apparently var. of *dodder'd*; shattered. See *didder*. *Dotterill*, an old doating fellow.—*Craven.*

'So it fareth with the same tree in its decay; for it becomes sapless and *doddered*, one knoweth not well wherefore.'—*Stanihurst.*

Isl., *dotta*, to nod with drowsiness; Dut., *dödderig*, drowsy, nodding; Ger., *dottern*, to totter—roots of our Eng. *doating*. *Doated* timber has its root probably in the Ger, *todt*, death; *todten*, the dead; Dan., *Dödhed*, deadness.

In Northampts. *dodderels* are pollards. *Dodded*, lopped, occurs in Bailey. *Doddyd*, without horns.—*Pr. Parv.* To *dodd* sheep, to cut the wool away about the tail.—*Teesdale.* *Dodded* sheep, short-horned.—*Whitby.* *Dod*, a round-topped fell, and *doddy*, a cow without horns.—*Cumb.* *Doe-headed*, says Carr. *Craven Gloss.*—Fris., *dodd*, a lump clump. Fr., *dodu*, round, plump. A *bog*.—Northampt., from *dodder*, to shake.

DOBBLE. A local variation of daub.

DOCKEY. A ten o'clock morning meal taken by labourers.

It, *tocco*, a morsel; *vulg. tocco di pane*, a bit of bread; Wel., *toci*, an allowance, what is cut off; Fris., *dók*; Bremen, *dokke*, a little cut, shive

DODDY. Low in stature, small, 'a *doddy* bit.' *Doddy-mite.*

Hoddy-doddy, *dodkin*, *totty*. Dan., *tot*, a bunch; Fris., *dodd*, a lump, clump; Fr., *dodu*, round, plump.

DODDY-PATE, DODDIPOLE. A blockhead, dunce. Fris., *doddje*, a silly-stupid, a blockhead.

'He rayles and he ratis—He calleth them *doddy-patis*.'—*Skellon.*

'Ye hoddy-peakes, ye *doddy-poules*.'—*Latimer.* 'Our curate is an asse-head, a *dodipoll*, a lack-latine.'—*Id.*

'You that purpose with great sums of study and candles to purchase the worshipful names of dunces and *dodipoles*, may closely sit, or soakingly lie at your books.'—*Gab. Harvey's Pierce's Supererogation*, 1593.

DODMAN, A snail. See **HODMADOD.**

'Yt is as great pyte to se a woman wepe as yt is to se a sely *dodman* crepe.'—*Bale's Kynges Johan*, 1538.

'In that a Snayl or *Dodman*, which is not only not warm, but to our feeling very cold, is fain to brood its as cold sweaty eggs, nested upon a cold wet earth, bespewing them about with the fuzze of a cold clammy froth, in coldish raughty weather, and all making way to a kind and timely hatching.'—*Fairfax.*

'I'm a reg'lar *dodman*, I am, said Mr. Peggotty.'—*David Copperfield.*

Bacon enumerates *hodmadod* or *dodman*, among fish that cast their shells.

DODGE. A small lump of something moist and thick, as of mortar, clay, &c. Var. of *dod*.

DOGGEDLY. Shamefully done. A *dogged* way, a distance.

DOLK, DOKE. A deeper indentation than *delt*, a cavity between two

swellings. The pit or hollow of the stomach. Fris., *dolg*, a wound; Gael., *dochainn*, hurt, injury; Eng., Gypsy, *dooka*.

He hugg'd her only with his two forefeet, which he had thrust so into the oft of her sides, as to make two deep *doaks* there.'—*Fairfax*.

DOLLOPT. Badly or over-nursed. Var. of *dallop*.

DOLE, DOOL. Deal, division or share of anything, as gains, joint property; a distribution, as of alms, food, fuel, or clothing; also a boundary or landmark. A. S., *dælan*; Plat. Dut., *deelen*, to separate, distribute, &c.

Pl. Dut., *dole*, a ditch, with the sod turned up as landmark.

Dole or *several* is a term commonly applied in East Anglia to the divisions of parochial lands or charities, or of common right of pasturage, fuel, &c. *Dool* posts were low boundary marks. Also to the half-and-half (in Cornwall, 'one and all') or share principle which prevails in the coast fisheries. In Cumb., *dote*. Applied on the Yorks. coast to the alms of money or food given at funerals.

'Accursed be he who removeth his neighbour's *doles* or marks.'—*Homilies*.
DOLVER. Reclaimed Fen ground. A. S., *dulfon*, dug out.

DOVE, DOOM, DUM. Down, as a rabbit's. Dan., *dunn*. Isl., *dùn*.

A goose or duck, when beginning to sit, plucks off her plumage to line the nest. This is called *dumming* it.

DONE-GROWING. Stunted in growth.

DOOR STALL. A door post. The A. S., *durustod*.

DOP. A short, quick curtsy. A. S., *dopettan*, to sink.

DOP-A-LOW. Very short in stature. applied to females.

DOR. The cock-chafer. A. S., *dora*, a drone.

DORBELLISH. Very clumsy. Gael., *doirbh*, perverse, untoward, 'Anything that has an unseemly appearance, Ayrsh.'—*Jamieson*.

'Will you then hopeto beat them down with fustybrown bread *dorbellism*—*Nash*

DOR-APPLE. A firm winter apple of a bright yellow colour; cor. of *pomme d'or*.

DORMER. A large beam.

Halliwell has *dormant*, the large beam lying across a room, a joist. Also called *dormant-tree*, *dormond* and *dormer*. Anything fixed was said to be *dormant*. Fr., *dormant*, sleeping, lying still.

Doss. I.—To butt with the horns, as a bull, a ram, or he goat, Scot., *dush*, to push as a ram, ox, &c. Dan., *dyst*, shock, brunt.

'Potter, the translator of the three Greek Tragic Poets, was nonplussed on first coming into Norfolk as a curate, by the farmer with whom he lodged telling him whilst pointing out to his notice a fine bull, that he must soon make away with him, as he had already '*dossed* three *manthers*.'—*Forby*.

II.—A hassock, in Chesh., a boss or pess. III.—The tussocks or knots of sour rushy grass in marsh land. Gael., *dos*, and *dosach*, a bush, tuft, cluster; Manx, *dossagh*, clustery.

DOSSERS or DOBSERS, wicker baskets or panniers. Old Fr., *dorsiers*. Fr., *dos*, back.

DOSSERS. A motion of the head in children, caused by affections of the brain. Fris., *dösig*, giddy.

DOTTED. Giddy, said of sheep that have *hydatids* on the brain.

One of the E. A. words imported into Gower, Pembroke, see p. 502.

DOW. A dove. *Duffy-dows*, their unfledged young. *Dow House*, *duffus*, a dove cot. *Duffows*.—Pr. Pw. Isl., *dufa*, a dove; A. S., *duna*; Scot., *dow*, *dow-futter*, a field fare. Sw., *duf-hus*, a dove-cot.

'With the gardynes berne and duffous that I purchased therto.'—*Bury Wills*. (John Baret's 1463)—*Camden Sy.*

'The fauconer came runnyng with a dow, and cryed, stow, stow, stow!'—*Skellon*. Dow. To mend in health. Of a sick man lying in the same state it is said that he 'neither dies nor dows.'

A. S., *dugan*, to be well; Fris., *dooge*; Lanc., *doesome*, *dowin*, healthy, prosperous. 'Nayder dee nor dowe,' in a doubtful way.—*Cumo*.

DOWLER. A sort of coarse dumpling.

DOWN-BOUT. A hard set to; a tough battle. *Downfall*, rain, hail, or snow; *down-lying*, lying-in; *down-pins*, dead drunk.

DOWNY, DOWN I'TH MOUTH. Low-spirited; dull; Dorset, *dungy*; Cumb., *dowy*; Teesdale, *dowly*, the latter from Wel., *duly*.

DRAWBLE. To trail or trapes in the dirt, as a *drawble*-tailed wench. The original word, now obscured by draggle, *dim* of drag.

Gael, *drabh*, refuse, dirt; *drabag* a slut; *drab*, a stain. A. S., *drabbe*, dregs. Dan., *draabe*; Du., *drabbe*, to cover with filth. Plat. Dut., *drabbeln*, to slobber.—'Drabelyn, mud.—*Prompt. Parv.*

DRAWING-TIME. Fair day evenings, when the young fellows towze the wenches about.

DROP-GALLOWS, a foul-mouth'd person.

DOZZLED. Stupid, heavy. Cumb., *dozent*; O. Fris., *dösig*, dizzy.

'In such a perplexity every man asks his fellow, 'What's best to be done?' and being dozzled with fear, thinks every man wiser than himself.'—*Hacket's Life of Archbp. Williams*.

DRAINS. Grains from the mash tub, after the wort has been drained off. 'An oestridge feeding almost upon anything, ours refused nothing but the drains from the brew-house.—*Sir T. Browne*, v. I. 459.

DRANT, DRAUNT. To drone or drawl in speaking. The Norfolk characteristic, as distinguished from the Suffolk whine. A. S., *drean*. 'Than, be ydillesse, began mech debate in the cite, evil drantes in the puple.'—*Capgrave's Chronicle*.

'I long since found by experience, how Dranting of verses, and Euphuing of sentences did edify.'—*Gab. Harvey's Pierce's Supererogation*, 1593.

DRAPS. Fallen fruit picked up in orchards and gardens.

DRAWK. The common darnel-grass. *Lolium perenne*, Lin.

DRAW-LATCH. A dawdling loiterer. Isl., *latr*; Dan., *lad*, slow.

Drawlatchet, walking lazily. *Latchet* means to saunter.—*Barnes' Dorset Dial.*

DREDGE. A mixture of oats and barley, now rarely sown; *dragge*, mengled corne; (*drage*, or mestlyon).—*Pr. Pv.*

In the 13th cent., the grain crops chiefly cultivated in England were wheat, 'berecorn, *dragg*, or a mixture of vetches and oats, beans and pease. The regulations, for the brewers of Paris in 1254, prescribe that they shall brew only 'de grains, c'est a savoir d'orge, de mestuel, et de dragée.' Tusser speaks of *dredge* as commonly grown in the Eastern Counties—

'Sow barley and dredge with a plentiful hand.

Thy dredge and thy barley so thresh out to malt.'

'Dredge mault, malt made of oats mixed with barley malt, of which they make an excellent quick sort of drink, used in Staffordshire.'—*Bp. Kennett's Gloss. Coll.* 'Dragée aux chevaux,' provender of divers sorts of pulse mixed together.—*Colgr*—*From Way's Notes to Prompt. Parv.*

DREEPE. To drip or dribble. A. S., *driopan*; *dreeping wet*, dripping wet; a *dreep*, a fall of water; ex., 'three inches in a foot is sufficient *dreep* for pantiles.' Isl., *driupa*; Fris., *drepe*.

DRINDLE. A small slow channel to carry off water. A drill or small furrow for receiving seed. *Drindly, dringly*, slow; ex., 'He 's the *drindlest* man I ever did business with. Gael., *drill*, a drop; Manx, *drigey*, falling in drops.

DRIVING. To go fishing, used in to the herring fishery. A. S., *drifan*.

DROLL, pron. like doll, to put off, amuse with excuses. Gael., *dàil*, procrastination.

DROPE. To perspire, to drip as tallow. Preterite of *drepe*, which see.

DROPPERS. Women and children employed to drop seed and grain into the holes made by the *dabs* or *dibblers*. The portions of work allotted to each are called *rockets*.—*Moor*.

DROUCHED. Drenched with rain, drowned. Scot., *droukit*; Isl., *dreckia*, to plunge in water. 'Fr., *druger*, said of a sound shower, that wets thoroughly.'—Cotgr. Sw., *dränka*, to drown.

In Robert of Brunne's Chronicle, *drenkled*, *dronkeld*, and *dronkled*, are used indifferently.

This man was wikked in all manere thing; therefore he was *dronchin* in a small water.'—*Capgrave's Chronicle*.

'And took of hem to hundred and XXVIII. schippis—Thei bored and *drenched* hem.'—*Capgrave*.

'There came up eleven hundred Flemings at Waxham, thereof were taken and killed and *drowchyn* eight hundred.'—*Paston Letters*, A.D. 1440.

DROVY, DROSY. Itchy, scabby, lousy, or even all three. A. S., *drof*, dreggy, dirty; Dan., *drav*; Maux, *drouse*.

'Thus much I can say of my selfe, that these drunken *drosie* sonns go a tooting abroad as they themselves tearm it.'—*Green's Quip for an Upstart Courtier*.

DROY, a scullion, a drudge-of-all work; Dan., *dröi*, heavy, stout.

DROZE. To beat very severely; *drozings*, a sound drubbing.

North. Ang. *drove*, to afflict trouble; Dut., *droeven*, to afflict; *droes*, the devil; Ger., *drohen*, to menace; A. S., *drefan*; Isl., *dreyssa*, to act haughtily.

DRUG. A strong carriage with four wheels, for conveying heavy timber. Gael., *dragh*, and *tarruing*, to drag; Manx, *drug*, a drag.

A *jim*, for the same purpose has one pair only of wheels. Timber is laid upon the *drag*, but under the axle of the *jim*.

DRUMBLES. 'He dreams *drumbles*.' He is half asleep. Dan., *dulme*, to doze; Sw., *drumla*, to be drowsy; Manx, *dromm*.

DRY-FATS. Large wooden vessels. A. S. and Fris., *fat*, a vat.

DUDDLE-UP. To snuggle up closely and snugly. Ex., 'How he do *duddle* his self up.'

Moor gives an illustration overheard at a pigsty, where an old sow, who had been stingy to her clamorous litter was defended by a bystander. 'Aa, she fare ta stunt em neeyeow—but she'll lah down an *duddle* em present.' Derived probably as a dimin. from Dan., *dægge*, to suckle, fondle; Sw., *dægga*.

Duddles, little dumps; *thick-duddle*, flour and water.—*Barnes' Dorset Dial*.

DUGGLE. A variation of the above.

DUDDER. To shiver. See *didder*.

DUFFIN, DUTFIN. A cart-horse bridle.

Etymology obscure. It may be from the Old Fr., *duire*, to lead, guide; and *frein*, bridle, rein.

DULLER. To sorrow with pain; *dollour*, a fretting plaint. Lat., *dolor*; Wel., *dulyn*; melancholy.

DUMBLE. To muffle or wrap up. Isl., *dumba*, dark colour.

DUNDUCKYTIMUR. A dull, indescribable colour.

DUNDY. Of a dull colour, as *dundy grey*. A. S., *dun*; Isl., *dumba*.

DUNK-HORN. The short blunt horn of a beast. *Dunk-horned*, pitiful, sneaking, applied to cuckolds. *Dunche*, to strike.—*Pr. Pv.*

DUNSH. A shove, push. Scot., to jog with the elbow.

Gael., *tuinnch*, tossed or dashed as it were by waves. Dan., *dundse*, to thump; Sw., *dunsa*, to fall clumsily.

DUNT. Stupid or dizzy as from a blow. Isl., *dyntr*, shaking up and down; Sw., *dunka*, to beat heavily.

A dull boy is said to be 'kiender *dunt* hidded.' A *dunt* sheep, one that mopes about from a disorder in the head. 'Words are but wind, but *Dunts* are the devil.'—*Ray's Proverbs*. *Dunt*, a common abrupt pronunciation of done it. *Dunch*, Dorset, Sus. is deaf, dull; *Dunny*, hard of hearing.—Heref. and Shrops.

DWAIN, DWAINY. Faint, sickly. A. S., *dwinan*, to pine, waste away; Wel., *gwan*, weak, feeble; Gael., *fann*.

DWILE. A refuse lock of wool, a mop, any coarse rag. '*Dweyl*, a clout to wash the floor'; *dweylen*, to mop.—*Sewel's Dut. Dicty.*

According to *Forby*, an awkward rustic perversion of *doiley*, which it clearly is not. The use of *doileys* as a small napkin at dessert is thought to have been imported with the name from Holland, or derived from the name of the dealer by whom they were introduced.

DWINGE, DWINGLE. To shrivel, dwindle, shrink. Isl., *dwina*; Ang. and Fris., *dwine*; A. S., *dwiman*; *dwined*, vanished away, *Verstegan*.

Dwain, faint, sickly, a swoon. Suffolk.—Craven, a *dwine*. Whitby coast, a *dwain*; *dwiney*, puny; *dwined*, shrivelled.

'And it is possible some may be sent thither by no default of their own, o visible cause from others; but merely from Divine Justice, insensibly *dwingling* their estates, chiefly for trial of their patience.'—*Fuller's Worthies*—on the Suffolk Proverb, '*You are in the Highway to Needham*'

DYMOX. A sturdy combatant. From Dymoke, the name of the hereditary champion of the sovereign. *Dummuck*, a blow.

EA. Water. A. S., *ea*. Still retained in the proper names of many places in the fens. *Ea* brink; Pophams *ea*, and other water courses cut in the Bedford Level drainage.

Eay, a pond or pool, drain or watercourse.—Northampts.

EAGER, HIGRE. The swell and inundation caused by a peculiar tidal action in some rivers, as the Severn.

Forby states its occurrence in the Ouse, near Downham-bridge; and in the Nene between Wisbeach and Peterborough. '*Akyr* of the sea flowing, *impetus maris*, *Pr. Parv.* North Fris., *hieen*, to rise or swell as water; or it may be A. S., *ea*, water, and *cer*, a turn. At Howden, Yorks., a sudden inundation of the Humber is called an *egor*. In Craven dial. *acker* is a ripple.

EAR. The kidney, or adjacent fat, applied to veal. Also called *Near*, or *neah*, *ayyah*, and *niyah*.

Gael., *ara*, plur. *airnean*, the kidney, fat of the kidneys. Wel., *aren*; Ger., *mere*.

EARTH. One plowing. A. S., *earian*, to ear or plough. Wel., *aru*.

Dut., *eren*. '*Eryn londe* (Lat.) *aro*, *Pr. Pv.*

Goth., *arian*, the earliest labour having been the tillage of the field.

'At the very point where man parts company with the brute world, at the first flash of reason as the manifestation of the light within us, there we see the

true genesis of language. Analyse any word you like, and you will find that it expresses a general idea peculiar to the individual to which the name belongs. What is the meaning of moon?—the measurer. What is the meaning of sun?—the begetter. What is the meaning of earth?—the ploughed. The old name given to animals, such as cows and sheep, was *pásu*, the Lat. *pecus*, which means feeders.—*Max Muller on Language*.

EASLES. Hot embers. Essex,—*esse*. Cumb.,—*ess*. Salop.,—Isl., *eysa*.

EBBLE. The aspen tree. O. E., *abele*; Dut., *abeel*; the white poplar; Lat., *albus*, white.

EDDISH. Aftermath, the *eatage* on land after a hay or grain crop.

Fris., *etten*, pasture; A. S., *edisc*, aftermath.

In Ray's East Ang. words, *ersh* is given, 'the same that *Edish*, the stubble after the corn is cut.'

'When wheat upon *edish* ye mean to bestow,

Let that be the first of the wheat ye do sow.'—*Tusser*.

ECHANNONNUM. Each one of them.

EERIE. Grand and causing fear. Common to Norfolk and Scotland.

Dut., *eeren*, to reverence.

ELVISH. Peevish, tricky. Applied also to bees, as 'the bees are very *elvish* to-day.' A. S., *ælf*; Isl., *alfr*, an elf or fay.

'The mere spirit that is in you lusts to envy, inclines to crossness, *elvishness* and self-willedness of spirit.'—*Rogers Matrimonial Honour*.

ERRIWIGGLE. An earwig. '*Erwyggle*.—*Pr. Parv*.'

A. S., *ear-wigga*, or worm. O. E., *yer-wigge*, Leic., *wiggen-ear*; West, Somerset, *yerrwig*; *earwicke*; East Anglia, *erri-wiggle*, *err-igle*, *ear-wrike*; *narrow-wiggle*; Northamph., *arra-wig*; South, *pincher-wig*; North, *forkin robin*, *twiwe* and *cat with two tails* Lowl. Scotch, *Gelloch* and *gavelock*. Adams.—*Phil. Trans.*, 1858.

A. S., *wickga*, a worm, beetle. See *polwiggle*.

It is curious that in most European languages a name is given to this insect implying the habit of entering the human ear,—a popular error in entomology.

'**ESSEX MILES**, Suffolk Stiles, Norfolk Wiles,

Many Men beguiles.'—*Old East Anglian Saw*.

Essex Miles. 'These are cryed up for very long, understand it comparatively to those in the neighbouring county of Middlesex. The truth is this, *good way* and a *good horse* shorten miles, and the want of either (but both especially) prolong them in any county whatsoever.'—*Fuller's Worthies*.—

Fuller might have added that no miles are so long to the pedestrian as those which traverse flat and uninteresting scenery like that of Essex.

ESSEX CALVES. As valiant as an Essex Lion, i. e. calf.—*Local Saw*.

'Essex producing calves of the fattest, fairest and finest flesh in England (and consequently in all Europe). Sure it is a Cumberland cow may be bought for the price of an Essex calfe in the beginning of the year. Let me adde that it argueth the goodnesse of Flesh in the county, and that great gain was got formerly by the sale thereof, because that so many stately monuments were erected antiently therein for Butchers (incribed *Carnifices* in their Epitaphs,) in Cogshall, Chelmsford Church, and elsewhere, made of Marble, inlaid with Brass, whereby it appears that these of that trade have in this county been richer (or atleast prouder) than in other places.'—*Fuller's Worthies*.

ESSEX STILES.

'For stiles Essex may well vie with any county of England, it being wholly divided into small closes, and not one common field that I know of in the whole county.'—*Ray's Proverbs*.

ESH. The ash tree. A. S., *esc*. Pr. Pv., *esche*; Isl., *eski*.

ETHER. To wattle or intertwine, in making a staked hedge; 'to *bond* a hedge,' finishing its upper part with stouter materials to bind firmer the lower. A. S., *ether* and *edor*, a hedge. Also called *edder*. *Etherings*, pliant, hazel wands, Northampts.

'Save *edder* and stake—strong hedge to make.'—*Tusser*.

EVERY-FUTNOR. Every now and then. *Every-each*, every other.

EVEN-FLAVOURED. Unmixed, unvaried. Current, says Forby, in North Suffolk, in phrases like the following—'An *even-flavoured* day of rain;' i. e., incessant.

EWB. Preterite of owe. 'He *owe* me five pound.'

EXE. An axe. A. S., *ex*.

FADGE. To suit or fit—to answer expectation. A. S., *gefegan*.

The single shove or heave of the spring, which if the pieces of the watch were unhing'd and born upon by it, would only be pusht forwards or by-wards puts the Watch thus *fadg'd* together and in tilter into motions round, right, or level, swingling, forwards, backwards, upwards, downwards, and other wayes. all because 'tis a knack or engine.'—*Fairfax*

A bundle, Lanc. A bundle as of sticks; North Ang. *Fadge-te-fadge*, a slow trot.—Cumb. *Pay*, to *fadge*, Dorset, used in our dock-yards. Applied to a child walking.—Teesdale. To walk as if tired.—Westmoreland. A half-filled sack; to suit, agree.—Northampts. A short, fat, *fudgy* individual; to straddle along like a fat man.—Whitby.

FAGOT. A contemptuous appellation of a woman. 'A lazy *fagot*.'

'Qu'il y a bien de difference entre une femme et un *fagot*.'

'Qu'une femme parle toujours, et qu'un *fagot* ne dit mot.'—*French Proverb*.

'In Glouc., to call a woman an old *fagot* is almost the greatest insult that can be offered to her—Sir G. C. Lewis.

FAIRY BUTTER. A species of tremella of yellowish colour and gelatinous substance found on furze and broom, and the roots of old trees, and after heavy rains and putrefaction reduced to a colour and consistency not unlike butter.

FALLS. The cliff sides. Elsewhere *fells*.

FALL-LALS. Flaunting and flaring ornaments.

FAMBLE-CROP. The first stomach in ruminating animals.

Synonymous with *fumble*, signifying imperfect action. Dan., *famle*, to fumble, handle; Sw., *famla*, to feel for; Pl. D., *fummelen*. In Cumberland, a *fummelan feast* is held, when anew married couple are dilatory in producing issue, the neighbouring wives assembling unbidden at the house, invite themselves to tea, and make merry, wishing better success to follow.

FAN. To urge along. '*Fan* um along,' said of a horse urged on by the whip. Gael., *fannan*, a gentle gale.

FANG. A fin. North Ang., a paw or claw.

FANGAST. Ripe for wedlock, a marriageable maid.—Sir Thomas Browne.

An old Norfolk word, long obsolete. The derivation is obscure. Ray's is by no means satisfactory: *fangan*, to take, *gast*, amor! the latter a forced interpretation, but adopted by Forby. It may be the Gael *fann*, to languish, weary for; *fann*, *adj.*, apt, prone; *fanntais*, languishing; *gaol*, love; *gasda*, a beautiful or blooming maid.

The A. S. has *fæmne*, a maiden; *fæmne-had*, woman-hood; *gehæman*, to cohabit; also *hagsteald*; Pl. Dut., *hagestolt*, a virgin. *Fangast*, is probably a compound of *fæmne*, and *ghast*, an old word of wide spread and import. See the latter under *gogood*.

FAPES, THAPES, or THEBES. Gooseberries or feaberries. The names are applied in the unripe state only.

At Norwich Forby remarks that *fape-tarts* are indispensable on every table on the Guild-day, the Thursday before June 22. Wel., *fpebris*, berries.—*Roderick's Eng.-Wel. Dicty.* 1737. Used in the mining district when colliers talk of a *faeberry* pie; Dan., *rips*. In *Gerarde's Herbal*, 1636, *faeberry* is given as synonymous with gooseberry; Lanc., *sayberry*. *Febe* seems applied to berries in general, as whinberries. Ger., *Pfebe*, a melon.

FARE. To be, feel, seem to do. A. S., *faran*, still in constant use in East Anglia. and with an infinite variety of meanings. Ex., 'She *fared* sick;' 'they *fare to be* angry;' 'how do you *fare to feel*.' A venture or enterprise is called a *faring*; as the herring and mackarel *farings*.

FARE. A litter or farrow of pigs. A. S., *fearh*; Dan., *fare*, a litter; Old Norse, *fara*, to procreate. *Ferry* and *fezzle*, other dial.

FAREING. Seeming, feeling. 'I've had sich *fareings* myself,' said by an experienced dame of the indescribable ailments of a love-sick damsel.—*Moor*.

FARRISEE. A fairy. A Fairidge, says Moor, in Norfolk. The green circlets in pastures were called *farrisee-rings*. *Ferrier*, a fairy—Suf. *Fairishes*, North and Mid. Ang., Manx, *ferish*.

FARMER. A term of distinction, says Forby, commonly applied in Suffolk to the eldest son of the occupier of a farm. He is addressed by the labourers as 'the farmer,' whilst the occupier himself is called master.

FARROW. Barren, applied to cows. Frisic, *vare kou*.

FARTHING-BOUND. Costive.

FASGUNTIDE. Shrove-tide, fasting time.

Given by Blount in his Dictionary of Hard Words, 1680, as a Norfolk word. Now obsolete. A corruption of Dan., *fasten-tiden*, Lent; Dut., *Vasten-tyd*.

FAT-HEN. Muck weed or goosefoot. *Chenopodium album*, Lin.

Ger., *Fette Henne*. Also called *Good Henry*, which a correspondent of Seeman's Journal, vol. 1, p. 151, asserts to have been used formerly for fattening poultry, a statement requiring confirmation.—*Dr. R. C. A. Prior*.

FATHOM. To spread or fill out. 'The wheat *fathoms* well.'

FAUTOUR. A supporter, believer in, protector. **FAUT.** To find out, discover. Fr., *fauteur*, a favourer, furtherer.—*Cotg*.

'He had consenting onto him a grete *fautoure*, to his erreure, on Anastase, fals Patriark of Constantinople.'—*Capgrave*.

'I confess his memory has suffered much in many men's judgments, for being so great a *Fauter* of the fancifull opinion of the Millenaries.—*Fuller's Worthies*,—on *Mede*.

Skellon has flaytering *saytors*, i.e. deceivers. *Fawtour*, or meyntynore, (liar).—*Pr. Pv*.

FAY, FEY, FIE. To clean out the inside of a decayed tree or ditch.

In Chesh. to *say* is to remove the soil to get at the marl; *fey*, loose earth, Craven; *feigh*, stone, soil, &c., carted away as useless.—*Derbysh.*; *faigh*, soil super-incumbent on coal, marl, stone, &c.—*Salop*. Ray says 'to *fey* or *feigh* it,' to do anything notably. 'Mind an' ha' t' house *fey'd* up ageain I come back.'—*Yorks. Dial.* To *fey* meadows, to cleanse them; to *fey* a pond, to empty it.—*East Anglia*. Dan., *feie*, to sweep out; Isl., *fægja*, to rinse, purify. There is also the A. S., *feoran*, to remove; *feormian*, to cleanse, purge, corrupted in the West Country and Northampts. dialects to *farm*.

'Suck muddy deep ditches and pits in the field,
That all a dry summer no water will yield;
By *feing* and casting that mud upon heaps,
Commodities many the husbandman reaps.'—*Tusser*

FEAGUE. To be perplexed. *Feaks*, a lover's anxious flutterings.
Dan. and Ger., *feig*, faint-hearted.

FEATHER-PIE. A hole in the ground, filled with feathers fixed on strings, and kept in motion by the wind. Used to scare birds.

FEFT. To persuade. One of Sir T. Browne's obsolete words.

In his own county, Essex, Ray says 'to put off wares.' Possibly from Wel. *fest*, adroitness. A. S., *fus*, prompt, ready; Dan., *fif*, contrivance, finesse.

FEGABY. Cor. of vagary.

FEISTY. Fusty. Fr., *fustè*, smelling of the cask.

FELL. Fill. Also a *fall* or drop of lambs.

FELL. To call round periodically.—Essex. A. S., *fela*; Ger., *viel*, many times. Dut., *veil*, to set out to sale.

FELT. A bank or field foul from spear grass is said to be all of a *felt*, matted. Low Sc., *felt*, creeping wheat grass.

Gael., *falt*, hair; *fallan*, tough mountain bulrush. Wel., *fyll*, overgrown, shaggy, full of brakes; *gwallt*, hairy, also faulty, neglected.

Fellered, entangled, Yorks.,—felt-haired, matted, Craven.

FESS. To force or obtrude aught. Ger., *feste*, firm, fixed. Fr., *fiché*, resolute on; Sw., *foss*, forward, impudent; *Fest*, to make a fuss, is used by Robert de Brunne.

Fess, fussy, meddling, eager in what is going on.—Dorset dial.

FIBERS. Fibres, roots or shoots of trees, weeds, grain.

Wel., *tyviad*, shooting, vegetating; Gael., *fiar*, twisting, wreathing, *fiuran*, sapling, branch, shoot. Or it is probably a cor. of fibre.

FILE. To defile. The Old Eng. form. A. S., *fylian*; Dut., *vuylen*, to pollute. It occurs also in R. de Brunne's Chronicle.

FILLA or FELLER. The shaft horse of a cart or tumbrel, the *filler*. Also *thiller* and *thill-horse*. West country, *viller*; A. S., *thille*.

Fill-bells, the chain tugs to the collar of a cart-horse, by which he draws.

'*Thiller*, the horse near the *thills*, or forepart of the cart.—*Cocker*.

'Thou hast more hair on thy chin, than Dobbin, my *thill* horse has on his tail.'—*M. of Venice*, ii., 1.

'With collars and harness for *thiller* and all.'—*Tusser*.

FILLER. To go behind. To draw back. Apparently a cognate of the above. A. S., *filian*, to follow.

FIMBLE. I.—To touch lightly with the ends of the fingers.

II.—To pass through without cutting. Ex., 'my scythe *fimble* the grass.' The thistle or female hemp.—Essex.

The *fimble* to spin, and the carle for his seed.—*Tusser*.

Not a *dimin.* of fumble as Forby asserts, but of the Frisc *fample*, to clutch with the fingers. Sw., *famla*, to feel for; Dan., *fiple*, to handle; *fip*, tip, *famle*, to fumble; Dut., *finelen*, light action of the fingers. *Fimble*, a wattled chimney.—Heref.

FINGERS. Mr. Halliwell gives from a MS. of the XV. century, the following rhyming list of popular names of the fingers in Norfolk—'Tom-thumbkin, Will-wilkin, Long-gracious, Betty-bodkin, Little-tit.'

FISHERATE. To provide for. 'I een't able to fisherate for 'em all.'

A Suffolkism, *Moor* says very common. Forby has not got it. See *Beein*. But *fischereres* found the body, and brout it to St. Petir Charch.—*Capgrave*.

FISSLE. A thistle.

FITTER. To shift from one foot to the other. Dan., *flytte*, to transfer.

FIVE-FINGERS. A star fish. A disease in turnips, also called *Hanbury*. In Norfolk, oxlips, *primula elatior*.

'A fish like a spar-rowel, destructive to oysters, destroyable by admiralty law.'—*Cocker*.

FIZMER, FIZZLE. To fidget unquietly.

Fizzling, fidgeting,—Whitby dial; nestling,—Cumb.; rustling,—Teesdale; Ger., *fusseln*, to play with the feet; *fiz-gig*, a flirting wench,—Craven. Wel., *fysg*, of quick motion.

FLACK. To hang loose. A blow with something loose and pliant.

Also *stick*; Ger., *flackern*, to flare, flutter. Su. Goth., *fleckra*.

FLACKET. A tall flaunting wench, whose clothes hang loose or flop about her. Also women's ribbons and such loose gear. Used also as a verb. Ex., 'She go *flacketten* about.' *Flacky*, hanging loose. The Dan. has *flagren*, dishevelled, *flakke*, to rove about. Isl., *flaka*, to hang loose down behind.

FLACKER, to flutter—Leeds. To flutter as a bird.—Whitby. To quiver, shiver.—Cumb. To palpitate.—Craven, *flack*, a blow with aught pliant.—Northampt.

FLAG. Turf, sod. Also heathy land turned up by the spade and heaped to dry for fuel. The surface of a clover ley of the second year turned up by the plough; the portions turned at once by the plough being called *flags*. 'One hole on a flag' is one row of holes dabbled or dibbled on each of such portions for dropping the seed wheat into.—*Moor*.

Cocker has *flags*—a Norfolk word—turf pared off to burn.' Ray—'*flags*, the surface of the earth which they pare off to burn, the upper turf, Norfolk.'—E. W., p. 76. Jamieson's Scot. Dict.—'*flag*, a piece of green sward cut with a spade.' Isl., *flaga*, to cut turf; *flag*, a patch of ground. Prov. Dan., *flag*, *flad*, a sod. Fris., *flaggen*, thin sods. Sw., *flaga*, to scale off; *flake*, the primary sense of the word in various dialects. A. S., *fle-an*; Dut., *vlaeghen*; Wel., *flag*. *Flaks*, turfs.—Cumb.

FLAGELUTT. A small rent or hole in a garment. Dimin. of Isl., *flaga*, a splinter, rent.

FLAITE. To affright or scare. Used in conjunction with *gaster*, an Essex word, with the same meaning.—Ray. Hence has arisen *flatter*, *flapper*, *flamber*, and *flabbergaster*.

'Desire to God to *flayte* and *gaster* thee out of that lap and bosom, as Samson out of Dalilah's.'—*Rogers' Naaman the Syrian*.

Flay, to fright; *flowered*, affrighted, a *flower*, a fright, North Ang.—Ray. *Flain*, frightened; *flaay-crow*, a scare-crow.—Leeds. They *flaid* her intiv a fit; *flay-boggle* and *flair-cruke*, a scare-crow; *flaysome*, fearful,—Whitby. *Flaytly*, timidly,—Cumb. *flayed*—Teesdale; *flowered*—Northumb.; *flaide*, afraid; *flay-somer*, more frightful.—Craven.

Flay, to terrify, Old North Ang. Dial., is from Isl. *Flæja*, to terrify, says Mr. Morris.—*Gloss. to Pricke of Conscience*. The latter would seem rather to imply to abandon, desert, shun. The Gael. has *fuadaich*, to put to flight; the Dut., *flaauwte*, a swoon, fainting fit; A. S., *flitan*, to chide.

FLANG. To slam a door; Sw., *flänga*, to bang, move violently.

FLAP. A slight stroke or touch. Ex., 'I have got a *flap* of cold.'

FLAP-JACK. A flat thin joint of meat, as the breast of a lean sheep or calf. See also *Apple-Jack*. In New England, *flap-jacks* are pancakes, not apple puffs.

FLAPPERS. Young wild ducks or rooks just able to fly. 'Full *flappers*,' very near flying. 'Ar yar rooks fliers?' 'No; but th'ar full *flappers*.' Dut., *flabberers*, to flutter, *flabbe*, a slap.

FLAPS. Large broad mushrooms.

FLARNECKING. An ostentatious flaunting. Dan., *flane*, giddy girl, coquet.

Alongside of the numerous onomatopoeas in our language, those words produced by direct imitation of the sound given out by a variety of animate objects (as *cuckoo*) and by collision, resonance and percussion (as *thud*), are a number appealing to man's other senses. Among these latter occurs a large class called into existence by the action of the elements upon our vision. The movement rapid, irregular or continuous of air, fire and water acting upon the retina and nerve of the eye has led to the coinage of many words both in the Teutonic and Romance languages, with the prefixes respectively of *fl*, *gl*, *sl*, which give expression to a multitude of its sensations, striving more or less felicitously to define their most subtle gradations of intensity.

In some words as the *flapping* action of a sail or the *splashing* of water the sensations produced both upon sight and sound seem equally interpreted. Fertile in suggestion and tempting as is the theme, space precludes our dwelling on it. The words falling under *gl* which pertain to the action of light and *sl* to that of water, are noticed under those letters.

Under *fl*, the most prolific derivation, a classification representing each element might be made, ranged under the heads of *flying*, *flaming*, and *flowing*, the first by far the most copious in its vocabulary. There are many words conveying the joint impressions of the eye and ear, as *flap*, *flicker*, *flutter*, *flap*, &c. There are those borrowed from the visible phenomena of common objects in which are also expressed, wavering, unstable, insolid action or condition of mind and body, *flashy*, *fluent*, *flighty*, *flippant*, *flatulent*, *flabby*, &c. The class, however, which comes most legitimately within the scope of this glossary, is that in which the sense of female untidiness is conveyed, arising from the fluttering of garments, loosely hanging round the limbs; or of dishevelled hair, left for the winds of heaven to visit freely. It is in the invention of *flouting* words of this class that village wit finds its amplest scope, and in this domain of language are forged those missiles of clumsy sarcasm, those flint implements of satire over which the rude ingenuity of rustic life, toils, and boggles, as it strives with a slow elaboration to give them edge and sharpness.

We append a list gathered from our dialectic glossaries of epithets, used mainly in disparagement of *flaunting* the characteristic falling in rural finery, and with which a sense of untidiness seems instinctively associated. Almost all occur in our Anglian dialects, North, Midland, and Eastern.

Flawps, an awkward slovenly female; *Flee-be-sky*, one who dresses ridiculously, a flipperty-flop; *floaping*, said of a girl with flying bonnet ribbons, *flossy-dolly*, a giddy, impudent female.—*Leeds*. Flappery, minor equipments; of dress; flauzy or flaupish, vulgarly fine. All wind and flap; a flauzy body, fawning and canting; a floutersome flee-be-skie, a flighty, sky-high body, a gaudy female; a flirtigigs; flobb'd up, inflated; flumpy, squat.—*Whitby*. Fallops, untidy ragged clothes; flakker and fiar, to laugh heartily like a child.—*Cumb*. Flig-me-gairy, a gaudy, untidy girl, said also of useless fripperies.—*Westmoreland*. Fal-lals, foolish ornaments; flisk, to skip or bounce, 'a flisky jade.'—*Brockett's North Country Words*. Flaff to fan, a fop; flaffer, to flutter; flam-foo, any gay trapping, flaunty, capricious; fleegeries, gewgaws; fliskmahaigo, giddy.—*Jamieson's Scot. Dial*. Flarin,

shewy; flowsy, a slattern.—*Craven*. Flop, quickly, smartly.—*Salop*. Flarnecking, giggling, flaring; flobbering, hanging loose; flommac, a slattern; flurrigigs, finery.—*Northampts*. Flammakin, a blowsy slattern; floistering, skittish, hoydenish.—*Devon*. A flantum-flatherum piebald dill, a woman fantastically dressed.—*Grose*. Flapse, an impudent trollop.—*Beds*. Flippety-flop, draggle-tailed, awkward in fine clothes.—*Warwicksh*. Flummuck, a sloven.—*Heref*. Fly-a-boster, outrageously shewy.—*Somersset*.

FLASH. A hedge, to clip off the lower parts of the bushes which overhang the bank or ditch; cutting it flat or flush.

FLATS. Flat marshy sites. Also the oozy levels left by high tides on the flat East Anglian shores. O. E., *flat*, to dash down water; Dut., *plat*, *vlak*.

FLAZZARD. A stout broad faced woman loosely, flaringly dressed.

FLEACHES. The slices into which timber is cut by the saw. Var. of *flitch* and *flake*. Dan., *flække*, to split; Isl., *fleki*, timber slices. 'Martin, this is my last straine for this *fleech* of mirth.'—*Pap with a Hatchet*.

Fleak, a gate set in a gap, a hurdle.—North Ang.. Dut. *vlaek*. 'Fleyke or hyrdyll' Pr. Pv.

FLECK. The down of hares or rabbits torn off by the dogs. A. S., *flix*, down, soft hair. Also to deprive. Ex., 'I *fleckt* him of all his marbles.' Fr., *fic*, a jerk.

FLECKED, FLECKERED. Dappled, speckled. Ger., *fleck*; Isl., *flekka*, to spot, stain, speckle.

'As well appeared by his *flecked* cheekes,

Now cherrye redde, now pale and greene as leekes.'—*Cascoigne*.

'The janglynge jay, to rayle; the *fleckyd* pye, to chatter.'—*Skelton*.

FLEET. To skim the cream from the milk. A. S. and Fris., *flete*, cream; Isl., *flot*, what floats on the surface; Pl. Dut., *flot*, cream.

In Lanc. *fleetins* are curds of milk. *Fleet-time*, day break, from the clearing off of vapours. In Suffolk, *flet* cheese is the cheese made of skimmed milk, which enjoys such ill repute for its flinty properties. In Chesh., *fleetings* or *fillings* are the refuse milk in cheese-making.

FLEET. A shallow piece of standing water, when very shallow a *plash*, when deep a *meer*. *Fleet*, shallow. Sussex, *flit*.

Fris., *flaak*, shallow; Sw., *flata*; Dut., *vlacke*

At Lynn, and on some parts of the Suffolk coast, a *fleet* is a channel left shallow at low water by the tide, a creek.

My various *fleets* for fowl, O who is he can tell.'—*Drayton*.

'Its fur from being *fleet* water in his mind, where them thowts lays. It's deep, Sir, and I can't see down.'—*David Copperfield*, p. 480.

FLEET. Of nets. The train of drift nets paid out by a herring or mackarel boat.

A. S., *fleotan*; Dut., *vlieten*, to float; or it may be from the Dan., *flette*, to plait, braid.

FLETCHES. Green pods of pease. Also *fletshards* or *fletshads*.

Of the same derivation apparently as *fleaches*, as is also

FLICK. I.—A smart stinging slap. The flake or flank of a hog cured in a 'powdering tub.' Ex., 'Dew ye powder all yar *flick* ta year. A *flitch* of bacon. Fr., *flique de lard*; Isl., *flicki*; A. S., *ficce*.

'Another brought a spycke—of a bacon *flicke*.'—*Skelton*.

FLIGGER, FRICKER. A fluttering movement. A. S., *fliccerian*.

'And now he and all his old fellowship put out their fins, and are right *flygge* and merry, hoping all thing is and shall be as they will have it.'—*Paston Letter*, A. D., 1460.

'Fain would she seem all *frize* and frolic still.'—*Hall's Satires*, p., VI.

FLIGGERS. The common flag. *Iris pseudacorus*, Lin.

FLITCH, FLIT. To move from place to place. To remove from one house or farm, to another.

Common to other dialects, as the Lanc. Old Norse, *flytia*; Dan., *flytteri* bustle or trouble of moving.

FLIZZOMS. Flying particles, or small flakes in bottle liquors, their *beeswing*.

'Flizz, to fly off.'—*Bailey*. Isl., *flus*; Sw., *flisig*, scaly; Dan., *flise*, to splinter.

FLOCKY. Over ripe, or badly ripened, tasting woolly, dry, or stringy. *Flocks*, sediment, Lat., *floccus*.

'Not to leave anie *flockes* in the bottom of the cup.'—*Nash's Pierce Penilesse*.

FLOP. Souse, plump, flat. Ex., 'A fell full *flop*.' 'I'll gi yeow a *flop*.' 'A *floppt* his affections on that flacketty wench.'

'She *floppt* down into ar seat.' Also *flump*. An awkward person *flumps* into a chair. Var. of *flap*.

Flop, a mass of thin mud.—*Dorset*.

FLUE. I.—Shallow. II.—The coping of a gable end, an end wall.

I.—'Flew, or scholde, as vessell or other lyke.'—*Pr. Pv.* Ger., *flau*, shallow, Fris., *flüe*; Isl., *flaa*, a marsh. II.—Wel., *flu*, a prow, a projecting out; Fris., *fleuer*, a vane, summit of a roof. Ger., *flügel*, a wing or aisle.

Flowe, a large peat bog, as Solway *Flowe*.—Cumb. dial.

FLUSH. The stream from a mill head. Scot., *flusch*, a run of water, Isl., *flust*, abundance. Dut., *fluyzen*, to flow violently.

FLY-TIME. The season in which flies are troublesome.

Amongst the most popular of American similes is—'Thrashing round like a short-tailed bull in *fly-time*.'

FOGGER. A huckster, petty chapman. Whence pettifogger.

In Gael, *foghar* is a robber, and huckster is synonymous with cheat.

In the old Yarmouth assembly books, the term fish *fogger* occurs, applied to the small dealers.

Fog. Long grass, growing in pastures in late summer or autumn; not fed down but allowed to stand through the winter, and yielding early spring feed. By its length and thickness the outer part forms a cover or thatch for the lower, which is kept fresh and juicy, at least through a mild winter.—*Forby*.

Fog occurs in almost every Eng. dialect, with varying meanings. *Ray* has 'fog, coarse sour grass that cattle will not eat, till it be frost-nipt—or little else be left on the pasture.'—*North Country Words*. In his East words he gives 'fogge, long grass remaining in pastures till winter.' *Nares* has 'fog, rank, strong grass.' *Fog* cheeses in Yorksh. are such as are made from this latter grass, as *eddish* cheeses in some other counties. The *Yorks. Dialogue*, 1697, has fog, fresh grass that comes after mowing.' *Blount's Glossographia*, 1656, has 'fogage, fog or feg, rank grass not eaten in summer.' *Bailey's Dicty.*, 1730, has 'fog, corn which grows after autumn and remains in pasture till winter.' *Jameson's Sc. Dict.*, 'fog, to be covered with moss, to eat heartily; foggage, rank grass which has not been eaten in summer, or which grows among grain, and is fed on by horses or cattle, after the crop is removed.' *Ducange* has *fogagium*, winter fodder. *Carr*, in his *Craven Dialect*, writes

'*fog*, after-grass, after math, not winter eatage in the sense of Ducange;' but immediately after contradicts his explanation by his illustration, 'when farmers take the cattle out of the pastures in autumn, they say 'they are bound to *fog* them,' that is, feed them on dry food. *Baker's Gloss. of Northampt.* renders '*fog*, coarse grass which cattle will not eat.' *Hartshorne* in *Salopia Antiqua*, gives '*foggy*, a horse is said to be so, when for a time having been fed upon grass, he has grown dull and stupid. *Palsgrave's Dicty.*, 1530, has '*foggy*, too full of waste flesh.' Brockett's North County words renders *fog*, grain grown in autumn after the hay is mown. *Fag*, long coarse grass,—*Northampts. Pheg*,—*Salop. Feg*, grass withered on the ground, without being severed from its root.—*Sir G. C. Lewis, Heref. dial.* The Rev. J. Davies, in his paper on the *Races of Lancashire, Phil. Sy. Trans.*, 1855, seeks to affix to *fog* the meaning of dry food, as hay, in opposition to the fresh grass, basing it on the Wel., *fwg*, long dry grass, but this seems to imply *standing* grass, *gwair*, applying to hay on every description of land, *gwair rhos*, meadow hay, *gwair hallt*, marshland hay, &c. The Gael has *fog-har*, under crop, harvest, also *foghnan*, thistle. Sw., *foga*, herbage.

From this conflict of authorities, two distinct interpretations of *fog* are extractable—an aftermath, ranker grass than the first crop, a meaning attached to it in the North;—and a winter pasturage of coarse tufty grasses, disdained in the summer by the cattle, but relishable with its young shoots in the scantier herbage of winter.

'Her face glystryng like glas; all *foggy* fat she was.'—*Skelton*.

'Then green and void of strength and dark and *foggy* is the blade.'—*Golding's Ovid*, 1587.

'Those who on a sudden grow rather *foggy* than fat by feeding on sacriligious morsels, do pine away by degrees and die at last of incurable consumptions.'—*Fuller's Pisgah Sight*.

FOISON. Succulency; the juicy properties in herbage. **Ex.**,

'There is no *foison* in this hay.'

'I will gyvi kynge Johan thys poyson

So matynge hym sure that he shall never have *foyson*.'—*Bp. Bale*.

Sc., *foison*, *fusion*, pith, essence or spirit of a thing. **Ex.**, 'What are ye glouran at me for, whan I'm at my meat? Ye'll tak a' the *fizzen* out o't'—*Roxb.* 'He has nae *foison* in him.' no energy. *Jam.* *Foisonless*, sapless, dried, withered. Fr., *foison*, abundance, from Lat. *fusio*, effusion.

FOKY. Bloating, unsound, soft and woolly. **Ex.**, 'a *foky* turnip.'

Wheat is said to be *foky* when the grain is inadequate in quality to the promise of the *boke* or bulk. Boggy land is *foky*.

Sc., *fozy*, spongy, porous; *foziness*, duffiness, obtuseness, '*fozy* Tam.' *Cumb., dial.* *fozy*, soft as a frosted turnip. Brockett's N. C. words, *fozy*, *fuzzy* light and spongy. Fris., *fozy*; Dut., *voos*, *vooze raapen*. spongy turnips.

Brockett and others derive from A. S., *wosig*, juicy, moist, succulent, which seems rather a der. of *foison*.

FOLD-PRITCH. A heavy pointed iron to make the holes to receive the toes of hurdles. A. S., *pricca*; Isl., *prik*, a point.

FOLLOW. To. Applied to the pursuit of trades and callings.

FOLLOWING-TIME. A wet showery season. Also *falling-time*.

Common now in the U. S.

FOND. Luscious, fulsome, disagreeably sweet to taste or smell.

FOOL. A pet. *Cumb.*, a *fout*.

FOOTING-TIME. The time of recovery from a lying-in or foot-falling.

FORCE. Used in a neutro-passive sense. **Ex.**, 'I *forced* to go.'

I was obliged, I could not help.

FOREIGNER. Applied disparagingly to those not born in East Anglia.

Applied in U. S. to persons not born in America. In the Southern States to those born in another State.

FORE-SUMMERS. The fore part of a cart, formerly much used in Norfolk. A sort of platform projecting over the shafts, was called the *fore-summers*.

Wel. *summer* (Wel. *w* like Eng. *oo*), that supports or keeps together, a beam; *summer car*, the hind part of a drag or dray, which holds up the load. In the Gaelic, *sumhlas* is a packing close together.

FORGIVE. To begin to thaw. **FORHINDER.** To prevent.

FORLORN. Worthless, reprobate, abandoned. 'A *forlorn tyke*,' a sad dog. A. S., *forloren*, lost; Sw., *får-lora*.

Goed verloren, niet verloren; moed verloren, veel verloren; eer verloren, meer verloren; ziel verloren, al verloren. *Fortune lost, nothing lost; courage lost, much lost; honour lost, more lost; soul lost, all lost.*—Dutch Proverb.

Of heav'n and earth, and God and men *forlore*,
Thrice begging help of those whose sins he bore.—Giles Fletcher.

—Christ's Triumph over Death.

'I'm a lone *lorn* creetur' myself, and everything that reminds me of creaturs that ain't lone and lorn, goes contrairy with me.—David Copperfield.

FORTH-ON. A general idiom for an indefinite period. Ex., 'Come a month on liking, and if we agree you may stay *forth on*.'

FOSTAL. A paddock near a farmhouse, or a private way leading thereto. Also a farmyard; in former days in front of the house; A. S., *forestal*, a stoppage of the way; Ger., *forststallung*, an enclosure in a wood.

FOUR-EYED. Applied to dogs which have a distinct mark over each eye, of a different colour, as tan upon black; common to terriers, spaniels, &c. One wearing spectacles is said to be *four-eyed*.

FOUREY-LEET. Four cross-ways. In the North, four lane ends. Ger., *leiten*, to lead, conduct to.

FOURSES. The four o'clock snack of labourers in harvest.

FOUTRY. Paltry, trumpery, despicable.

'A *foutra* for thine office,' exclaims Pistol to Justice Shallow. Explanation of the term seems to be shirked by the commentators. Nares also overlooks it. Forby inclines to its being one of the Spanish colloquialisms current in England in Shakspeare's time. Cotgrave's Fr. Dict., 1632, has *Fouter*, a scoundrel, Jamieson's Sc. Dict., *Fouty futie*, mean, base, obscene, Lanarksh. —*foutlie*, Clydesdale—*foutlour*, *foutre*, a term expressive of the greatest contempt.—Lyndsay. The Gaelic has *fotrus*, orts, offal; *fotus*, refuse, corruption. *Fouter*, a despicable low fellow; *fouty*, base, mean, North Ang. *Footy*, little, insignificant.—Dorset. *Fouty*, said of a dress misfitting or sticking out, unseemly.—Whitby; mean, paltry—Northampts.; silly, foolish—South Coast dialects; a scurvy fellow.—Somerset.

FWOL. A term applied to all large birds. A. S., *fug-el*.

Also North Ang.—'We saw all maks o' feather *fwol*.'—Whitby Dial.

FOY. A supper formerly given by owners of fishing vessels at Yarmouth, to the crew at the beginning of the season, otherwise called a *bending-foy*.

Forby says it must be from the Fr., *foi*. If so, it could here be only used in the sense of a contract. Bailey's Dicty., 1735, has '*joy* (foy, Belg. voye, Fr. a

way) a treat given to their friends by those who are going a journey.' This would be given as a *fare-well*. Jamieson's Sc. Dict. has '*Foy*.—I. An entertainment given to one about to leave his residence or go abroad. II.—Metaphorical, as equivalent to wishing one a good journey.—Belg., *de fooi geven*. [This in Sewel's Dut. Dicty., 1708, is—to give the joy.] Sw., *drickaa foi*, a departure su, per. The Gael. has *feadh*, a *foy*, feast.—Highl. Sy. Dict.

Nares has altogether missed the meaning of the word whilst quoting from *Pepys' Diary* the following:—'To Westminster with Capt. Lambert, and there he did at the Dog, give me and some other friends of his, his *foy*, he being to set sail to-day towards the Streights.'

FOYSTING. Swaggering, intruding upon. Also pocket-picking.

Foist, a cut purse, a juggling trick. *Foist*, *feist*, *fizzle*, to break wind in a noiseless manner. Dut., *veest*; A. S., *fysan*, to expel.

'All the bravery comes by nipping, *foysting*, and lifting.'—*R. Greene's Thieves falling-out*, 1637.

'Thereupon appeared a little Remnant of a man; a dapper Spaniard, with a kind of a Besome Beard, and a voice not unlike the yapping of a *foysting* Cur.'—*L'Estrange's Quevedo*.

FOZY. See *Foky*.

FRACK. To abound, swarm. Ex., 'the church was *fracking* full.'

'My apple-trees are as full as they can *frack*.'

Dut., *vracht*, a load; Isl., *frek-r*; Su. G., *fraeck*;

FRAIL. I.—To fret or wear out cloth. Fr., *frayer*. II.—A flat

rush or mat basket, in which fruit and fish were formerly packed.

O. Fr., *frayel*, a mat basket; It., *fragli*, an interweaving of boughs.

'Two hundred *frail*s of figs and raisons fine.'—*Mirror for Magistrates*, 1587.

'Three *frails* of sprats carried from mart to mart.'—*Beaumont and Fletcher*.

FRAME. Affected demeanour or speech. In Low Scotch 'framed manners,' *frame-person*, a visitor to be received ceremoniously.

Isl., *fram*; Dan., *fremmed*; Swed., *främmande*; A. S., *fremed*, strange, from afar, a guest. In Chesh., *frem'd* and *frim*. In the North, *frem'd*; foreign. Also used in the sense of uncommon. Ex., 'It's rather *frem'd* to be ploughing with snow on the ground.' *Brockett*. *Frem-sted*, deserted, abandoned, Low. Scotch.

FRAMPLED. Cross, ill-humoured, peevish. See *Frumpt*.

Apparently synon. with rumpled, crumpled, ruffled. *Plionner*, to *frumple*.—*Cotgr.* Ger., *krumpen*; A. S., *hrympelle*; Scot., *frample*.

'I wiss ye dele uncurtesly;

What wold ye *frampil* me? now fy!—*Skelton*.

'He has good have took Meat, Drink and Leisure, for the churlish *frampoled* waves gave him his Belly-full of Fish-Broth, before out of their Laundry or Wash-House they would grant him his Coquet or *Transire*.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

'And I do think myself so much the more bound to take heed how I handle the Good name of others, by how much the more I see, how an ill-willed and *frampled* waspishness has broken forth, to the roylng and firing of the age wherein we live.'—*Fairfax*.

'It doth not use to be so forward; meere necessity must drive her to say, tis *frampole*.'—*Rogers' Lost Shecp*.

FRANK. The large, slow-flying, fish-eating heron, the name derived, conjectures *Moor*, from its monotone note, called also a *Hahnsey*.

FRAWL, FRAZLE. To unravel awkwardly, as skeins of thread, &c. *fraisilins*, threads of cloth. *Fraisler*, to break into many small pieces.—*Cotgr. Fr. Dict.*, 1632. **FRAISE.** To break. '*Frees*, free or brokyl.'—*Pr. Pv.* Lat., *frangere*.

In the North, a *fraise* is an eighth of a sheet of paper, called in East Anglia a vessel.—*Pegge's Suppl. to Grose*.

FRAWN. Frozen. 'I'm *frawn* to dead almost.' Dut., *vervroren*, frozen; Ger., *frieren*; 'Ta *frize*,' it freezes; A. S., *frysan*; Sw., *frysa*; Dan., *fryse*. *Frore* is also used for frozen.

'A *fresy* thowe, a melting *fryse*.'—*Lydgate*.

FRAWSY. Frisky, pettish; Gael., *fraigeasach*, smart, lively.

FRAZY. Grasping, voracious; Ger., *frassig*, greedy; Dan., *frasnige*, to trick out of.

FRECKENS. Freckles. Gael., *breac*; Wel., *brycan*.

Chaucer has *fraknes*. *Frekena*, says Tyrwhitt is Sax for spots. Dan., *fremet*; Isl., *frekna*. The A. S., *fretan*, is to gnaw, devour; *fretnes*, a devouring. In Suffolk and in the North, *fretten* is pockmarked; pock fretten, eaten by small pocks. Lat., *fricare*, to rub; It., *fregare*; North Ang., *farnickle*.

'Were not wormys ordeyned theyr flesh to *fiele*.'—*Skellon*.

FREE-MARTIN. Twins of different sexes, or rather the female calf of a twin, of which the other is a bull.

'When twin calves are born, they may be both perfect bull or perfect cow calves. When one is a bull calf and the other a cow-calf, the latter, in general, will not breed, from malformation of the genital organs.'—*Mayo's Physiology*.

FREELI-FRALIES. Light, unsubstantial delicacies, frothy compliments, frippery ornaments, trumpery finery, corresponding somewhat to the O. Fr. *fan freluches*, fopperies, fooleries, loose threads, shreds and rags.'—*Cotg*. See *frawl*.

FRENCH. Very bad, in great trouble.—*Halliwel*. Dut. and Ger., *krank*.

FRESH. Handsome, blooming, beautiful. '*Fresche*, joly and galaunt.'—*Pr. Pv*. See *frycke*.

'The *freshe* beautee sleth me sodenly.'—*Chaucer's Knight's Tale*. '*Fresshe*, gorgyouse, gay, or well besene.'—*Palsgrave*. Sw., *frysk*, sound, healthy. fresh; Ger., *frisch*.

FRESHER. A young frog. In *Prompt. Parv.*, *froske*, *frosche*, a frog. Ger., *frosch*; Dan., *frosk*, a frog. Craven and N. Ang., *frosk*.

FRESHES. The overflow of water in rivers, after heavy rains.

In America, *freshets*, used in the North and East States. *Bartlett*, Dict. of Americanisms, remarks 'that it is an old English word is evinced by the following extract from the description of New England, written and published in England, in 1638. 'Between Salem and Charlestown is situated the town of Lynn, near to a river whose strong *freshets*, at the end of the winter filleth all her banks, and with a violent torrent vents itself into the sea.'

Fresh. A flood or overflow of a river. N. Ang.

FRIAR'S LOAVES. Fossil echini.

FRIGHTFUL. Fearful, timorous. Ex., 'Lawk! Miss, how *frightful* you are! says an homely wench, when Miss screams at the sight of a toad or spider.—*Forby*.

FRIMICATE. To play the fribble, to affect delicacy.

In Lanc. *frum* is tender, delicate, easily broken. In Chesh. *frim* is applied almost solely to young tender grass. Bailey has '*frim folk*,' outlandish men, Linc. *Frem*, handsome, new, Northampts. Fresh, plump.—Glou. *Frum*, forward.—Salop. Dan., *frönnet*, brittle.

FRINGEL. The limb of the flail which strikes the corn. The other is the head-staff. See *Swingel*.

FRIZZLE. Used in the sense of a rumpus; a difficulty. *Friser*, to ruffle.—*Cotgr. Fr. Dict.*, 1632. Sw., *frisera*, to frizzle.

'A precious nip and *frizzle* of a fix' is a popular Americanism. A few years

ago, when visiting an East Anglian church, we expressed to the clerk who acted as cicerone, our admiration of the elaborate character of its restoration, we elicited the dry rejoinder, — 'Ay, an' a pretty *frizzle* there wur when the bill cum' in.'

FROISE. A large thick pancake the size of the pan, sometimes containing small pieces of bacon mixed in the batter. To spread thin.—Suff. *Froyse* of egges.'—*Palsgrave's Fr. Eng. Dict.*, 1530. Wel., *froes*, an omelet.

Froisser, to knock or clatter together.—*Cotg. Fr. Dicty.*, 1632. An old Norfolk proverb is, 'If it wont pudding, it will *froize*;' if it won't do for one purpose, it will for another. Bailey has '*froyse*, a pancake with bacon.' With apples intermixt they are called *fritters*. Linc., *frits*.

FROSLING. Anything as plant or animal, nipped or injured by frost.

Another brought two goslynges, That were noughty *froslynges*.—*Skelton*.

FROUZY. Blouzy, with disordered and uncombed hair.

Not applied in East Anglia to what is offensive to the nose as well as eye, the sense attached to it in the Salop, Northampts and other dialects; but what offends the eyes. In Craven, Leeds, and the North, *frow*, *frowdie*, is a dirty woman. Ger, *fraw*, Dut., *vrove*. *Frowzy*, sour countenanced, forbidding, a fustilugs.—Whitby; *froué*, a fat and morose woman.—Cumb.; a slattern, a lusty female.—Northumb.; ill-looking and dirty.—Salop; red in the face from exertion and heat.—Sussex. *Frowhey*, (Dut., *vroetjie*.) a furbelowed old woman.—*New Yorkism*. *Frounty*. Very passionate.—Linc.

FROWNED. Frowning, wrinkled. See *Frampold* and *Frump*.

'Caron with his beard hore, That roweth with a rude ore,

And with his *frownsid* foretop, Gydeth his bote with a prop.—*Skelton*.

FROWY. Stale, musty, fusty; *frousty*; meanings attached to *frowzy* in other dialects. Applied also to cattle feed.

FRUGAL. The reverse to costly, which see. Ex., 'Good woman,' quoth the village doctress, 'is your child costive?' *Costly*! ma'am, no, quite the contrary, sadly *frugal* indeed.—*Forby*.

Mistress Page, on receiving Falstaff's love-letter, soliloquises—'What an unweighed behaviour hath this Flemish drunkard picked (with the devil's name) out of my conversation, that he dares in this manner assay me? Why he has not been thrice in my company! What should I say to him? I was then *frugal* of my mirth—heaven forgive me!' The word has been a puzzle to the commentators, free, rather than sparing, appearing the sense implied. Johnson says he once thought 'not' should be prefixed.

An O. E. form derived from A. S. *frig*, free. '*Frugal*, frank, kind, affable, Aberdeen.—*Jamieson*. Gael., *frogan*, lively, cheerful.

FRUMMETY. Wheat boiled in milk, with cinnamon and sugar, an excellent thing. 'When ta rain *frummety*, mind ye heent a dish ta seek.' Lat., *frumentum*, wheat; common to other dialects.

'Remember thou therefore, though I do it not

The seed cakes, the pasties, and *furmenty* pot.'—*Tusser*.

FRUMP. A sour, ill-humoured person or look. Said more particularly of old women. Synon. of *frampold*.

In Lanc., to sulk, to take offence. Also a taunt, 'and vex'd with jeers and *frumps*.—Tim Bobbin. Wel., *from*, to chafe, fume. Dut., *frump*, an unseemly fold, from the puckering of the features under the workings of ill-temper. Bailey has *frump* (*frumpelen*, Teut., to frizzle up the nose, as in derision) to flout, taunt, snub. Craven dial., to treat rudely.—Leeds, cross-grained, to rebuke angrily.—Sussex, one with badly-made clothes ill put on.

Frump, a fidgety woman.—Bristol; cross, ill-tempered, an old *frump*—Americanism.

'I gave him slender thankses, but with such a *frumpe* that he perceived how light I made of his counsell.'—*Greene's Theeves falling out*, 1637.

'How scornfully doth she reject the water hee offers her? How doth she scoffe and *frumpe*, and breake jests upon him.'—*Roger's Lost Sonne*.

FRUSH. To bruise, rub, or scrub. 'To *frush* a chicken,' to carve it. Fr., *froisser*.

'And with his berde he *frushed* hir mouthe un-mete.'—*Lydgate*.

FRYCKE. Fresh, active, lusty. '*Fryke*, or craske or yn grete helthe.'—Pr. Pv. See *figger* and *fresh*.

'When thou art *fryke* and in thy floures.'—*Lydgate*.

O. Fr., *frigue*; Goth., *friks*, brisk, lively; Fris., *freck*.

FULLA. Fellow. *Moor* thus illustrates:—'The day on which I write this, the following conversation passed between me and an honest neighbour, a labourer; 'Why that there daater 'a yars grow a fine swacken gal?' Ah! she dew, she'll be a wappa if she git on thussens.' 'Wha's she the pitman, eh?' Is—no—why I don't fare ta know—she's a twin—I've got the *fulla* tew ar a toom.'

FULL-DUE. A final settlement and acquittance.

FULL-FLOPPER. A young bird fledged enough to quit the nest.

FULL-FROTH. Said of a cow in full milk.

FUMBLE-FISTED. Awqward in handling

FUNK. Touch-wood, in other dialects, *spunk*. '*Funke*, or lytylle fyrr.'—*Prompt. Parv.*

Dut., *voncke*; Ger., *funke*; Dan., *funke*, a spark, tinder, touchwood.

FURTHER. Pronounced *fuddah*, used in negative senses. Ex., 'If I dew, I'll be *fuddah*,' i. e. I'll never do it. 'I wish that fellow *further*.'—'I'll see you *fuddah* fust.

FUSSLE. *Fussment*, a slight confusion, bustle.—Suff.

FUSSOCK. *Fissock*, a large coarse woman. N. & E. Ang. dialects.

FUTNON. **FRUTINON.** Now and then.

GAG. To nauseate, to reject with loathing. To make an unsuccessful effort to vomit. '*Gaggyn*, or streyne be the throte—suffoco.'—*Prompt. Parv.*

Gael., *gagach*, to stammer; Wel., *gagen*, to yawn; *gwagau*, to empty or void; Breton, *gag*, to sputter; A. S., *geagl*, the jaw.

The heron so gaunce,

And the cormoraunce,

With the fesaunte,

And the *gaglynge* gaunte.—*Skelton*.

'There's such a Singing, Bawling, *Gagging*, Leaping, and Thundring up and down that there's no hearing one another.'—*L'Estrange's Erasmus' Colloquies*.

GAGE. A bowl to receive the cream as it is skimmed off. *Gage*, lytyll bolle.—Pr. Pv.

GAGGER. A Nonconformist. 'An old Puritan' originally, says Forby.

GAHUSEY. A warm worsted short shirt with sleeves; cor. of *Jersey*.

GAIN. Has in East Anglia beyond its ordinary meaning of handy and dexterous, other significations. Ex., 'I bought this horse very *gain*,' (cheap) *Gain*, quiet, pretty quiet. 'The land lies very *gain* (near) for me.' *Geany*, gainful; *Gayn-cope*, to take a short-cut.

In Lanc., *gainest* way is the nearest way. Dan., *giensli*, a short cut; Isl. *gagn*, against, through; Sw., *genasti*, nearest. The secondary meaning of

gain as profitable, convenient, handy, in opposition to *ungainly*, provincial *on-gain*, is the Isl., *gegn*, suitable. Scot., *game*, fit, useful; Su. Goth., *gagnetlig*.

'Fulle sone the yong kyng with gode man that wer gayn.

Purveid his wending.'—*Robert de Brunne*.

'GAL, for girl,' writes Elwyn, 'that every New Englandman has heard so often, is from Essex.'

Whether a cor. of girl, or from the A. S. *gal*, light, pleasant, merry, wanton, wicked, deponent saith not. It would not be so far-fetch'd as Horne Tooke's deriv. of *wench*, from *winc-ian*, to *wink*, ergo, one to be *winked* at. Girl is the O. Fris., *görl*, a young and foolish maiden; Pl. D. *gör*.

Isl., *gala*, giddy girl, coquette.

'Sen John's kep comp'ny with that *gal*,

He's quite transmogrified. *John Noakes and Mary Styles*.

GAL-BOY. A rough, romping girl, hoyden.—Americanism.

GAL-KA-BAW. An old East Anglicism for a girl cow-boy, say its writers. We doubt it. The Dorset dial. has *gally-crow*, a scare-crow; *gally-bagger*, a scare-beggar, from the O. E., *gale*, to cry, holla; Isl., *gala*; Dan., *gale*; or more probably the Wessex *gally*, to terrify; A. S., *gælan*.

GALDER. To prate in a coarse, vulgar, noisy manner. Sc., *gandy*.

The Gael, *goileadair*, a boaster, chatterer. Wel., *gwagher*, vain bravado, are more obvious derivations than Forby's A. S. *galdor*, an incantation.

GALE. Sweet, or Bog Myrtle. *Myrica Gale*, Lin. 'Gawl, wode or fowayle; *myrtus*, Pr. Pv. Wel., *ysgewyll*, osiers. twigs.

Formerly grown very largely for fuel in the East Anglian Fen districts. The *Myrtus Brabanticus*, *Gauke*, sweet willow, or Dutch myrtle, grows plentifully in the Isle of Ely and thereabouts, writes Gerarde in his Herbal. 'Whereof there is such store in that country that they make fagots of it, and sheaves, which they call *Gaulesheaves*, to burn and heat their ovens.

Hence comes probably *goil-sheaves*, a phrase which appears in *Hackets Life of Archbp. Williams*; a term which *Archbp. Trench* observes, one meets in no glossary or Dictionary, and adds, 'I only guess at the meaning of it.' 'All the rest of the articles, (i.e., of accusation,) were *goil-sheaves*, that went out in a sudden blaze.'—*Hacket*, pt. 2, p. 92.

Formerly used in lieu of hops, to give an intoxicating quality and bitter flavour to ale.

GALL. A vein of sand in a stiff soil, through which water oozes to the surface at soft places—called *sand-galls*. *Galty*, boggy, clayey.

Several derivations are open. I.—Ger., *quellen*, to gush, well up, soak.

II.—Gael., *goil*, water-bubble. Wel., *gwall*, faulty, defective; Sw., *gall*, sterile; Dan., *gal*, wrong, provincially sore. Isl., *gall*, a blister. The latter corresponds with our dialectic English sense of *gall*, a sore or bare place in a crop, from wet or liability to scorch. Dorset, *gawly*. Heref and Shropsh., *gally*, spongy and wet, said of land; *galls*-springs.—Craven. Sir G. C. Lewis adopted the first cited deriv. in his Heref. Gloss.

'Bare plots full of *galls* if ye plow over thwart,

And compas (? compost) it then is a husbandly part.—*Tusser*.

'I see in some meddows *gawly* places, where little or no grasse at all groweth, by reason (as I take it) of the too long standing of the water.—*Norden's Surveyor's Dialogues*, 1610.

'In the Southern States, as in Florida, *gall* is low spongy land, treacherous to the foot, unpleasant to cross.—*Vignoles' Florida*.

Gall-apples, oak-apples, excrescences produced by insect deposit, used for ink. Lat., *galla*; Wel., *ysglin*, to form a knot; *ysgwyl*, a scab.

GALLOPPED-BEER. Small beer for immediate use, made by boiling small quantities of malt and hops together in a kettle.

GALLOW-BALK. The iron bar to which pothooks or hakes are appended in the open kitchen chimney. North Ang., *galley-bauk*.

Isl., *galge*, gallows, from *gagl*, says Ihre, the branch of a tree, its earliest substitute. *Gallowses*. N. Ang. dialect, braces, or suspenders.

GALVER or GALVA. To throb. An inflammation or push is said to *galva* or *galver*, or *boolk*, bullock. For deriv., see *Culver*.

GAMBREL or BUCKER. The crooked piece of wood on which the carcasses of slaughtered beasts, hogs and sheep are expanded and suspended.—*Cammerell*, N. Ang. dial.

'Soon crooks the tree that good *gambrel* would be.'—*Ray's Proverbs*.

From ignoring the Celtic roots of our language, Forby and Moor overlooked the true derivation of this as of so many other East Anglian words. Forby derives from Ital., *gamba*, leg. It comes from the Wel., and Gael., *cam*, crooked, bent awry; *cambrel*, *cambren*, a crook'd stick with notches in it on which butchers hang their meat. In Northampt. and Lanc., *gambrel*. In the latter, wearing shoe heels on one side is called *camm'ing*: a fit of ill-temper, a *camm'd* humour. In ship-building an arched deck is *cambered*. Fr. *cambrier*; Sp. *gambote*. Sc., *cameral*, a large, ill-shaped person; *camm'l*, crooked wood, used as a hook for hanging anything on. Fr. *jumbe*, a leg. *Gambrel*, a cart with rails or thripples.—Heref. Manx, *gammag*, a crutch, awry.

In his assault on Wolsey the East Anglian satirist declares

'All that he doth is ryght, as ryght as a *cammoc* croked'

Of the Trumpington Miller in Chaucer's Reeve's Tale, it is said,—

'Round was his face, and *camois* was his nose'

Camois his editors read flat. It should be crooked or hook-nosed

Bucker, used in East Anglia in a sense similar to that of *Gambrel* is from Ger., *Bucken*, to bend; *buckelig*, hunch-backed; *buckling*, a bow, a red-herring, bloater; Dan., *buk*, to bow; Isl., *bukkr*, a bow.

As straight as a maypole, as little as a pin,

As bent as a *bucker*, and as round as a ring.'—*Old Suffolk Riddle*.

GAME-LEG. A bent leg, a sore or wounded one. Wel., *cam*, crooked.

In Lanc. and Yorks. *gam-legg'd* is crooked; *gammerel*, hocks or lower hams of an animal.—Devon.

'A hipped roof to a house is called a *gambrel*, from its resemblance to the hind leg of a horse, which farriers call a *gambrel*.'—*Bartlett's Americanisms*.

GAMMICKING. Gossiping, idle.—Essex. A. S., *gamenlice*, sportive.

GANDER. To gad, to ramble. A. S., *gan*; Low Sc., *dander*, saunter.

GANG. To go or come, as in Scot. Used also as a sub. 'A *gang* of harrows,'—'a *gang* of feet for making jelly.' A *gang* is a row or set of teeth, or the like.—*Ray*. Dut., *gang*, a pace; A. S., *gan*; Isl., *ganga*, to walk.

GANT. I.—A village fair or wake. Not common, says Forby, but occurs in noted instances like Mattishall Gant. II.—A gannet.

From A. S., *gan*, he adds in the sense of a gathering, assemblage. The Dan. has *ganteri*, foolery, hanter, horse play. *Ganse* or *Gants*, merriment, hilarity.—Sussex, *galliganting*, or gallivanting, wandering about in gaiety—applied to associations of the sexes.—*Jenning's Somerset Dial*. *Galligant*, to play the hoyden, to flirt.—Devon. *Ysgant*, to whisk about, Wel.

GANT, scanty, cor. of *gaunt*. Used in the epithet *ganty-gutted*. A. S. *gewant*, dwindled. 'Gawnte, or swonge.'—Pr. Pv.

GAPE-STICK. A large wooden spoon, a clown. A. S., *ge apan*, to gape. Isl., *glapa*.

GARLE. To mar butter in making, by handling in summer with hot hands, turning it to a curd-like substance, with spots and streaks of paler colour.

Garled is streaky, spotted, applied to the colour of animals. Dismissing

Forby's conjecture of a derivation of *garle* from A. S., *geara*, prepared, a clue to its origin is gained from the senses last quoted. Dut., *kakelbout*, speckled, streaked, spotted. Dan., *kal*, veins in a tree round the pith. The Wel. has *calen*, a lump of butter, *caleard*, enamelled, streaked. Fr., *biggarré*, motley, pied.

GARTLESS. Heedless, thoughtless; cor. of regardless.

GARTLE-HEAD. A thoughtless person, gartless.

GAST OR GHAIST COW. A barren cow, called also a '*farrow-cow*.'

Dut., *guste koe*; A. S., *gasen*, barren, wanting, deficient.

Among the items of stock at Hengrave Hall, in 1607, under great cattle, were, '*gastware*, of the last remaynti ij.' Among the customs at Campsey Ash, Suffolk, in 1662, were, "for every *gast*-beast, and heifer, *gast*-ware, and bud, 1*½*d., each."

GAST BIRD. A single partridge in the shooting season.—Suff.

GASTEE. To startle, scare or affright.—Essex. *Gashful*, frightful;

A. S., *gæston*, afflicted; *gast*, a ghost.

'Whose *gashful* halls do seem to pelt the skies.'—*Quarles' Jonah*.

'Since thou must goe to surge in the *gastfull* seas, with a sorrowfull kisse, I bid thee farewell, and I pray the gods thou maist fare well.'—*Greene's Pandosto*.

'If they run at him with a spit red hote, they *gaster* him so sore that his dame shall go her selfe if she will; he will come no more there.'—*Gifford's Dialogue on Witches Essex*, 1603.

GATS. Openings like those in the sand-banks of the Yarmouth Roads. Isl., *gat*, a gap, aperture, opening; *gata*, footpaths, narrow ways; *gatt*, a door-opening. In Dan., *gat*, a narrow inlet. Also Dut., a channel, harbour, *gaten*, holes, straits; Sw., *gata*, street, lane, common pavement; A. S., *gat*, a gate; *geat*, a gap, opening, door; *geath*, a street.

The Rev. I. Taylor finds the root in the A.S., *geat*, gate; Dan., *gata*, a street or road, respectively passages *along* or *through*. Sanskrit, *gati*; Zend., *gātu*, a road. From the same root come *gut*, and the nautical *gat*, a passage through a narrow channel, as the *Cattegat*. Other *gates*, Sussex provinc. for otherways. The *ghats*, or *ghauts*, of India, are the passages to the river side, and the passes through the western line of hills.

Gat, says Bartlett, Dict. of Americanisms, 'is applied to several straits in the vicinity of New York,' named by the Dutch settlers.

Gates, on the Kentish coast, are waggon tracks, cut on a slope through the face of the cliff down to the beach below, and used for drawing up sea-weed on to the crops for manure.—*Wright's Provinc. Dict.*

Gate, *gyet*, a way, path or street. In many North Country towns the names of streets which end with *gate*, as, *Narrow-gate*, &c., have no allusion to *gates* having ever been there.—*Brockett's Gloss. North Country Words*. *Gate*, way, path.—Teesdale. 'Let him e'en gaing his ain *gate*, Sc. saying. 'Town-*gate*, the street.—Craven. *Gaut* or *gote*, a narrow opening or slip from a street to the shore.—Whitby. *Gate*, a road, a fence, a bar that opens.—Lanc. A farm-yard.—Sussex. A road.—Chesh. *Glat*, a gap in a hedge.—Heref. and Salop. *Gatless*, heedless, careless.—East Ang.

Chaucer's line, '*gat toothed*, I was, and that became me well,'—Wife of Bath,—has perplexed his editors. It is generally regarded, remarks Archbishop Trench, in his *Deficiencies in our English Dictionaries*, as a solitary appearance of the word in print. He finds, however, two centuries later, two instances of gap-toothed, in one of which, the word is exchanged for 'tut-mouthed,' projection of the lower jaw. [The derivation of *gap*, is distinct from that of *gat*. A. S., *geapan*; Sw., *gapa*.]

'Thy mone pynnes bene lyche old yvory,

Here are stumps feble, and her are none,

Holes and *gappes* ther are, I nowe for why.'—*Lydgate's Advice to an old Gentleman who wished for a young wife*.

Wedgewood, derives from Norse *glestent*, having teeth apart; *glisa*, to shine

through; *glett*, an opening in the clouds; *gletta*, a peep; *glott*, an opening, hole, the l being dropt.—*Glestand*, Sw., is *gap*-toothed.

The music of 'sweet satyric Nash,' was characterised by one of his contemporaries, as 'armed with a *gag*-tooth,' a tusk,—says, Disraeli. His bitter foe Gabriel Harvey pounced upon the simile, and in the prologue to his lengthy tirade against Nash, the *Pierce's Supérerogation*, 1593, exclaims, 'I'll lead the *gag*-tooth'd fop a new-found dance.' *Gag*-teeth, said of prominent ones, occurs in var. Eng. dialects; *gag*, Gael., is fissured, cleft, gaping; Isl., *gagr*, oblique, awry.

'The poets were ill advised, that fained him to be a leane *gag*-toothed beldame, with hollow eyes, pale cheeks, and snakie hairs.'—*Nash's Pierce Penilesse*, 1592.

GATTER-BUSH, GATTRIDGE, GADRISE. The wild Guelder-rose, *viburnum opulus*; the wild dog-wood, *cornus sanguinea*; the spindle, *evonymus Europæus*, Lin. *Gatteram*, a green lane, Linc.

A.S., *gad*, a goad; *treow*, tree. Also *gad*, and *loris*, a rod; Dan. and Dut., *ris*, so called, says Turner's Herbal, 1551, 'because butchers make prickes of it.' Dorset, *gad*, a hedge stake. *Gad*-fly, a goad fly. *Gatteridge*; *gaitre*, rouge; Fr., *verge sanguine*; from the red colour of the twigs and autumn foliage of the spindle and carnal trees.

'Doubtless the gad to which these names refer, is the A. S., *gad* a point; Sw., *gadd*, a sting; Isl., *gaddr*, a pin; and the shrubs so named, from rods cut from them, being armed with such points, and used for driving oxen, and thence explained in the Promp. Parv. as a 'ghyp, or whyppe.'—*Dr. R. C. Prior's Pop. Names Brit. Plants*, 1863. Wel., *ysgud*, to push, thrust.

GATTIKIN. Clumsy. 'A great *gattikin* mawther.' Dimin. of *gawky*. Isl., *gaurr*, a tall, clumsy person. Dut., *gek*; Ger., *gauch*, a fool. *Gauk*-handed, left-handed; Fr., *gauche*.

GAVEL, GAVIN. A sheaf of corn before it is tied up. *Gavellers* gather mown barley or oats or hay with hand rakes into rows and loose cocks ready to pitch on to the waggon. The corn in such rows is said to be in *gavels*. See *Gofe*.

Gaveler, to swathe or *gavell* corn; to make it into sheaves or gavells.—*Cotgr.* Fr., Dict., 1632. Dut., *geveld*, cut down; Sw., *kärfe*, little sheaf; Wel., *gavyr*, to tie in little whisks, to rear up corn in small whisks; *yagavyn*, to stack corn; *ysgubell*, a sheaf; *gavyt*, a pitch fork; Gael, *gob-hal*, a fork. Dah. and Ger., *gaffel*.

GAVEL-KIND, the custom in Kent, by which all sons of a family shared the property equally; Gael, *gabhail*, division of land by lot among the members of a family or tribe, as practised by the ancient Gaels; Irish and Welsh, *cine*, kin; Wel., *gavael*, the family tenure, tenacious; *cenedyt*, family, clan; *cen*, in possession of.

GAVEL, a tribute, impost; A. S., *gafel*, from *gaf*, gave; Fr., *gabelle*; *gavel*-bread, a corn rent; *gavel*-erth, a tenant's duty of ploughing so much land for his lord, as was also *gavel*-med, of mowing, and *gavel*-rep, of reaping.

GAVEL, a gable; from the Dan., *gavl*; Fris., *gavel*; *G'yavel*-end, N. Ang.

GAWMLESS. Silly, heedless. *Gawm*, to give heed to, to consider.

Isl., *gaumr*, attentive, heedful. A. S., *gymleas*, careless, negligent. Mæss. Goth., *gaum-jam*, to apprehend.

The roots apparently of *gumption*. A Lanc. man, says, 'I conno *gaum* what tha means.' In the Ulphilas Gospels, Mark xvi. 4. *gaum*, appears for perceived *Gauamin*, foolish, ignorant, Cumb. Persons dead drunk are always spoken of as *gaumless*, Leeds; *gaumish*, cute, knowing, Whiby; *gaumble* to try to comprehend, Lanc. To *gaum*, implies to discern, perceive, rather than amount of knowledge, in the Yorks. dial.

GAWP. To gape very wide. Intens. of *gape*. Dut., *gaapen*; Isl., *gapi*; A. S., *geapan*.

GAYS, GAHS. Pictures, prints in a book. Seemingly used in the

senses of a gawd, a gew-gaw. *Gay-cards*, the picture cards in a pack. *Gay*, gawdy, said of speckled cattle.

'Item to Kateryne Druy my best *gay* cuppe of erthe kevvryd, or ellys oon of the frerys to chese of bothe.'—*Bury Wells* (John Baret,) 1463.

'Like children, they take more delight in the gilded out-side of a book, and to look upon the *gays*, and pictures that are therein.'—*Rogers' Rich Fool*.

'There are it is true, a certain set of morose and untractable spirits that look . . . as upon *gays* and pictures, that are only fit for women and children.'—*L'Estrange's Æsop's Fables*.

GEASON. Rare, wonderful, scarce. Used by Bp. Hall. Old Norse, *gisun*; A. S., *gæsen*, rare.

'Graffes of such a stocke are very *geason* in these days.'—*Gascoigne*.

Trusting to treason, And not to reason,

Which at that season, To him was *geason*.—*Skeltonical Rhymes*, 1589.

GEAR. Stuff, tackle. Doctor's *gear*, harness *gear*, household *gear*. A man exerting himself, is 'going *gears*.' A. S., *geara*.

GE, GEE, or JEE. Fit, suiting. Used negatively. Ex., 'Ta dont fare to *jee*.' 'This does not *ge* well with that.' 'He and she will never *gee* together.' *Geed*, went, 'getting away for,' near, approaching to. A. S., *gegan*, to go.

GENERALS. The Archdeacon's Visitation or General Courts. A Norfolk phrase.

GET. To get *shut* of, to get quit of. 'To *get* over the left shoulder,' to be a loser.

GIBBET. A violent fall. In Norfolk, a swattock.

Sw., *gipa*, to whip up into the air, *guppa upp*, to tilt up.—*Wedgewood*.

GIBE. Toft, agree. Dan., *gide*. **GIB-FORK**, a two-pronged harvest fork. Gal., a *gobhal*; Ger., *gabel*; Dan., *greb*; Fris., *greeps*.

GIFBLE, JFFLY. To be restless, unquiet, fidgetty. A *jiffy*, an instant, is the twinkling of an eye. A. S., *geflea*, trifles.

Wedgewood derives from Wel., *cipio*, *ysgipio*, to snatch. This seems too remote. A nearer is *golyvu*, to snatch, *scuffle*; *gwyllt* and *ysgawn*, full of starts and turns, skittish. Forby ders. from *gliff*, a glimpse, Sc.

Gifeling, id., flighty, applied to young girls.—*Baker's Northampts. Gloss*.

'Bodies so *girrd* do not gain for every minute of time a point of room, but jogging on in a *giffing* way, they lay behind at every bearing, as they come up more or less at every jetting.'—*Fairfax*.

GIFTS. The white spots under finger or thumb nails.

GIG. A trifling silly fellow. **GIGLET.** A flighty girl.

Imitative of light movement, O. E. *gig*, a top; Swiss, *gagli*, a girl that cannot sit still; *gigling*, *giggish*, have similar meanings; Dut., *gichgelen*, to laugh, sniggle; Swiss, *gigelen*.—*Wedgewood*. The A. S. has *gagol*, *gægh*, wanton. The Somerset *gigletin*, is trifling, wanton, said of the female sex; Devon, *gigglet*, laughing romp, a tom-boy, whence says Miss Palmer, wakes and fairs are sometimes called *gigglet-fairs*.

'A wanton *gigt*, maye cal me to sorrowful repentannce, whilst she is yat in her gawdes.'—*Ale's Apology*. 'Ye fayrare woman ye more *gyglott*.'—*Sloane M.S.*

'B. And how wat matters in your Chambers? G. Why, there we had the girls about us aga, *gigling* and toying with a thousand Ape's tricks; and their main business was to know what Linnen we had to wash.'—*L'Estrange's Erasmus' Colloquy*.—*The French Inn*.

GILVER. To ache, throb, same as **CULVER**, which see.

GIM, GIMMY. Spice, neat, smart. Wel., *gwym*, sleek, glossy; Gael., *grinn*, neat, elegant; A. S., *gym-en*, heed, solicitude.

GIMBLE. To grin or smile. **GIMBER.** To gad about.

GIMMERS. Small hinges. Dorset, *gimmy*; O.E., *gimmel*; Somerset, *gimmaccs*. *Sherwood's Eng. Dict.*, 1632, has *gimminewes*, joints of a spur. Fr., *geminé*, twin, two-fold. See long note, *Pr. Po. Way's Ed.*

'The dry rusty creaking of whose hookees and *gymmes* might be heard a mile off.—*Nash's Christ's Tears*.

GIMSON. A gim-crack. *Gimsoner*, an expert in making them.

GINNICK. Neat, spruce, figg'd up. Essex. Var. of *gim*, or the Ger. *genau*, fitting close, exactly.

GINPIE. Made of a calf's entrails, dressed with lemon, currants, &c.

GIP, GIB. To cheat, swindle; A. S., *gæp*, shrewd. Wel., *yegip*, snatching, rapacious.

'She is a tonnish *gyb*,

The devil and she be syb.'

—*Skelton's Elinour Rummyng*.

GIRTY-MILK. Porridge of oatmeal or grits. A. S., *grætta*, groats.

GIVE. To give one it; to rate soundly—'give one his own,'—to tell him plain unwelcome truths, to give him it like a Dutch uncle,—to pay one in his own coin.—'to give one the bag,' to dismiss.—'to give one white-foot,' to coax him.—to give one the seal of the day, to greet suitably to the hour of meeting. A. S., *sæl*. To give grant, to allow authoritatively.

GLENT. A glance, start, glimpse, gliding aside, slip; also intens. of *gleaned*; Wel., *ysglentiaw*, to slide.

'Fro Cawod scho *glent*, to Donnefermelyn to fare.'—*R. de Bruine*.

'In at a gape as he *glent*. By the medylle he was hent.'—*Lydgate*.

'But for all that he is lykely to have a *glent* (fall).'—*Skelton*.

'Go softly, she sayd, the stones be full *glent* (slippery).'—*Skelton*.

GLICK. A jest, joke, repartee, retort. Isl., *leikari*, a juggler.

'A *glicking* pro, and a frumping *contra*, shall have much ado to shake hands in the *ergo*.'—*Gab. Harveys' Pierce's Supererogation*, 1593.

GLIES. Blinkers. Isl., *glja*, a glance. Leeds dial., *gle*, to squint; Lanc., *gley*. '*Glyare, gloyere*, or gogyl eye.'—*Pr. Iv.*

GLIMSE. To shine, gleam, glimmer. Dan. *glindse*; sl., *glys*.

The christal glas, which *glimseth* braue and bright.—*Gascoigne*.

GLISTER. To sparkle, glisten. Sw., *glistra*; Dut., *glinsteren*.

'She dranke so of the dregges, The dropsy was in hederages,

Her face *glystring* like glas, All foggy fat she was.—*Skelton*.

'As a glede glowynge, your ien *glyster* as glasse.—*Id.*

'The *glistering* glosse of bewties blaze, than reason shuld it deme.'—*Gascoigne*.

'And with that word his *glistering* sword unshethea.'—*Sirey's Æneid*.

GLOTTEN. To be scared, perplexed, affrighted. NAng., *gloppen*;

Isl., *glapa*, to gape; *glappi*, a dolt.

'Come hither, Sirrah,' cries Lucifer; 'and so the poor ar went wriggling and *glotting* up toward his Prince.'—*L'Estrange's Queved*.

GLOUSE. A strong gleam of heat from sun or re. Isl., *glasa*, to sparkle; Gael., *loisg*, to burn, blaze.

GLOUT. To look sulky, angry. Isl., *gletta*; St., *glutta*, to look out of the corner of the eye; *glott*, a bitir smile. Teut., *gluyeren*, to look asquint. Fris., *gloare*.

GLUSKY. Sulky in aspect, looking awry. The Pr. Parv. has *gluscare* and *gluskyng*, squinting.

Under *gl* an extensive group of English words, both written and colloquial, is noticeable, (see page 552), embodying the varied impressions which light conveys through the vision to the brain. They are specially noteworthy as not deriving from Greek or Latin sources, but from the Scandinavian and Teutonic.

The Greek and Latin have a few words from the roots of *glaukos*, *gleukos*, and *gloios*, describing respectively the qualities of—I.—Bright, *gleaming*; also light blue or grey, tints most nearly expressing the colour idea of atmosphere, sun-illuminated. II. and III.—Sweet and sticky properties of wine, must, gum, glue. There are also a few words in these languages from the root *glu*; Sanscrit, *gri*, on the tongue and throat; Gr., *glotta*, tongue; Lat., *gula*, throat, whence *gulp*, *glutton*, *gloating*, *glosing*, &c.

The root of the words loosely strung together in the passage beneath seems to lie in the Isl., *gulr*, yellow, the colour of *gold*. They all reflect in their degree the gladdening (Isl., *gladr*, bright) action of the light of the sun direct, borrowed, or refracted, upon the unsophisticated mind of the Northmen, the root appearing ever as a prefix,—whether the dewdrops *glisten* in the sun's morning rays, or its beams *glance* downward in the full glare of noontide heat—now veiling their brightness by momentary *gleams* through the clouds—now *gloomed* over with gathering storms—now *glowing* in a sky of unsullied blue—now dappling the woodland *glades* with chequered light and shade. Anon it sinks beneath the eastern heaven in a dying blaze of *glory*. The *gloaming* gathers o'er the landscape,—darkness deepens,—afar, in cottage homes, we mark the taper's *glimmering* ray, or the flickering shadows cast from the hearth by the fitful flashes of the expiring *glead*. Soon the moon takes up 'the wondrous tale'—its pale beams *gliding* across the glassy lake or flinzing fitful *glimpses* athwart the driving rack. Now turn we to the ball-room's borrowed light, where midnight strives to mimic day. Myriads of lustrous *glinting* from prismatic mirrors dazzle the eye. In the hair of beauty diamonds sparkle with a *glitter* out-vieing the modest taper of the *glow-worm*. The *glances* of her bright eyes fill the soul with a strange *glamour*. Wrapt in the sheen of *glossy* silks, she moves proudly along amid the *gloating* gaze of admiring lovers, the *glouring* looks of envious rivals.

We have quoted here words only of common significance—the student of our provincial glossaries will find they have furnished to the popular imagination themes for infinite variations and embroideries, and the glossaries of the Northern languages are equally prolific.

GLY-HALTER. A halter or bridle with winkers. Wel., *llwg*, eyesight. 'Gly, to look asquint.'—Ray's N. C. Words.

GNATTLING. Idle talk, busy about nothing.

GOB. I.—The mouth. II.—A greasy, mouth filling morsel.

'What great *gobs* of mutton, and pieces of fat,

My mother gave me, when I was a brat.'—*Old Suffolk Song*.

Gael, *gob*, bill or beak of a bird; Isl. and Dan., *gab*, the mouth; Polish, *geba*, the mouth; Russ., *gaba*, the lips; It., *gobbio*, a goitre; Fr., *gober*, to gulp down; *gobe-mouche*, a gape-mouth, fly-catcher. In Suffolk, *gobben*, is to chatter, idle; 'yeow tew e'nt a dewin a nawn—you only go *gobben*, about all day.' *Gobble* cock, a turkey cock; in the U. S., a *gobbler*; in Sc., a Bubbly-Jock. *Gob-locks*, large mouthfuls, Yorks.

GO-BY-THE-GROUND. A person of small stature.

GOFF, GOAF. A corn rick in the straw, laid up in a barn

Goaf-flap, a wooden beater to knock the ends of the sheaves, and flatten the goaf; *goaf-sted*, every division of a barn in which a *goaf* is placed, a large barn has four or more. The threshing-floor is the middle-sted; A. S., *stede*, a place; *Goave*, to stow or stack corn in a barn; *goffe*, a mow, Essex.

Palsgrave's Fr. Eng. Dict., 1530, has *goulfe*, of corne, so moche as may lye bytween two postes, otherwyse a baye; Dan., *gulv*, a floor; *gulve*, to lay corn sheaves on the barn floor; Isl., *golf*, a floor, partitioned room.

'In *goving* at harvest, learn skillfully how,

Each grain for to lay by itself on a mow;

Seed barley, the purest, *gove* out of the way,
All other nigh hand *gove* as just as ye may.—*Tusser*.

The Sw. has *Kärfve*, little sheaf; Gael, *sglobal*, a barn, granary; *sguab*, a sheaf; Wel., *yagobawura*, a barn; Heb., *schibal*, an ear of grain.

GOFFERS. Tea-cakes of flour, milk, eggs, and currants, baked on a *gofering* iron, divided into compartments which crimp the cake.

Gofering, applied to the crimping of shirt frills, caps, &c.

We have occasionally witnessed a brisk demand for *goffre* cakes from itinerant vendors on the Boulevards of Paris. They are there a very light species of pickolet or pancake, served hot, and *goffed* the moment before handing to the purchaser in a small machine, from which the cake emerges wafer-thin, and stamped in a number of small squares puffed out. Cotgr. Fr. Dict., 1632, has *goffre*, a wafer, a honey-comb; modern Fr., *gauffre*; Eng., *wafer*; Low. Lat. *gastrum*; Gael, *gearr*, a wafer. The primary root seems to lie in the act of dividing, incising with a stamp or impress, the Gael, *gearr*, the act of cutting; Wel., *cyfran*, to divide.

Gaufers, tea-cakes of the muffin sort, square, made of pancake batter, Whitby dial.

'In the valleys of the Mississippi and Missouri immense tracts are covered with hillocks of earth, burrowed by a species of mole twice the size of the common field mole, called *Gophers*.'—*Flint's Geogr. Miss. Val.*

GOFFLE. To eat fast and greedily, Essex. Var. of gobble, so the Ger. has *gähnen* and *gaffen*, to gape; Ger., Sw. and Dan., *gaffel*, a fork.

When vainly trying to make a dolt understand aught, an irate German will exclaim—'I will pitchfork (*gaffel*) it into you.'

GOING. A right of pasturage on a common.

GOINGS-ON. 'Pretty *goings-on*,' fine doings.

From Essex, says Elwyn in his *Americanisms*, and adds 'How often has every mischievous boy heard this!'

GOLDEN-DROP. The plum, *drap d'or*. **GOLDEN-KNOP**, the lady-fly or golden-bug. In Dorset, 'God Almighty's Cow.'

GOLB. Full, florid, rank, as grass, &c. Ger., *geil*, rank, fat, rich, well-manured.

GOLES, GOSH, GOMS. Foolish evasions of profane oaths. Mr. Peggotty's '*gormed*' may have been a var. of the last.

GOLLS. I.—Fat chops; ridges of fat on the fleshy parts of a corpulent person. Gael., *giall*, jaw; A. S., *geahlas*; O. Fr. *golle*; *jol*, Pr. Pv. II.—Also hands or fists. (Northumb., *glams*, hands.)

'By *goles* or *golls*, an ancient oath. *Goll*, Suff., a clumsy fist.

Isl., *kolla*, a handgripe; *kollr*, applied to chilled, swollen hands.

III.—Mucus hanging from the noses of dirty children or *grubs*.

Gael. *sglon*.

GOMMACKS. Tricks, foolery. *Gomeril*, a fool.

GON. Gave, given. **GINT**, gave it. 'I *gint* em properly.'

GONG. One half the stitches which form the aperture or mesh of a net. '*Goonge*, hole.'—Pr. Pv. The A. S. has *gong*, a step, *gongel-wæfre*, a spider; Dan., *gænge*, a thread, groove. Isl., *göng*, a small step. See page 292.

In the Sicilian dialect, *gangama* is a fisher's net. Gr., *gaggamon*, a small round net.

GONG. A jakes. '*Goonge*, preuy.'—Pr. Pv. A. S., *gang*; Wel., *ysgoth*. 'And al this persecucion was for on Arrian, which deyed at Constantinople ful shamefully. For as he went to cherch with his clientes and mech pride,

there fell upon him a appetite for to go to a sege; and with his issew went alle the guttes out of his wombe down in to the *gong*.'—*Capgrave's Chron.*

GORE. Mire. 'Slush and gore' go together, the former expressing the thin, the latter the thick part of the mire. '*Gore* or slory.'—

Pr. Pv. A. S., *gor*, dirt, mud; Fris. and Dut., *goor*; Sw., *gorr*; Gael., *gaorr*. *Gor*, rotten, decayed; *gorry*, nauseously fat, Craven.

GOOD-DOING. Charitable. GOOD-MIND, GOOD-SKIN, in a good humour. *Good'n, goody*, contractions of goodman and good-wife.

Good-tidy, reasonably, not amiss; *good-outs*, doing well; *no-outs*, the reverse. In Linc., *good-woolled*, a fine fellow, a good sort.

GOOSE-HOUSE. A parish cage or lock-up. Suff.

GORMED. A word which appears in no East Anglian vocabulary.

'He struck the table a heavy blow with his right hand, (had split it on one such occasion,) and swore a dreadful oath, that he would be '*Gormed*,' if he didn't cut and run for good, if it was ever mentioned again.' It appeared, in answer to my inquiries, that nobody had the least idea of the etymology of this terrible verb passive, to be *gormed*; but that they all regarded it as constituting a most solemn imprecation.—*David Copperfield*, p. 25.

Assuming that Mr. Dickens picked up the word from the beachmen of Yarmouth, the task of hunting down its probable derivation is worth an effort. The old Norse has *gormr*, mud, mire, filth from butchers' shops, intestines, entrails; hence the North Country, *gorm*, to smear, daub; and a Staff. dialectic word I have never seen in print, the *gormaruttles*, pain in the bowels, diarrhoea. The Gael has *goinih*, hurt, damage, anguish; *gorm*, to become blue; Wel., *gorne*; *gor*, Fris., Dut., and our North Country, is rotten, dirty; lastly also, and most probable, the true der. is Sw., *gorma*, to insult, abuse.

GOSGOOD. Yeast, a word of Sir T. Browne's collection. Extinct, says Forby.

Ray derives from *God's-good*; Forby, from A. S., *gos*, goose; a bird fondly associated in the Norfolk mind with yeast dumplings; ergo, *good with goose*, goose-good.

The Sw., *gasa*, to ferment; *gas-ning*, yeast; *gas-deg*, leaven; *god*, good. Gael., *déasgann*, yeast; Wel., *yeg*, froth, foam, are more likely.

Isl., *gusa*, to spurt out; *giosa*, to hurl up with whizzing force.

'Even in the other great class of languages—the Indo-Germanic—the same figure appears, and may fairly be taken to illustrate the Eastern metaphor. *Ghost*, *Geist*, the moving inspiring spirit, is the same as the heaving, fermenting *yeast*, the boiling, steaming *geyser*.—*Stanley's Lectures on the Jewish Church*.

'*Ghost*, the German *geist*, is connected with *gust*, with *yeast*, with *gas*, and even with the hissing, bubbling *Geyzers*.—*Max Müller*.

Giest, the inspiring working spirit of things animate and inanimate, as of love, impulse, affection, is from the O. Ger., *gäsht*, *gisten*, fermentation, leaven.—*Heyse*. Carried south to Italy it appears in *gasto*, a lover; Lake of Como, *gast*, the beloved one.—*Diez* See *Fangast*, page 548.

GOSLINS. The beautiful early blossoms of the willow, *Salix*, Lin.

A. S., *wilig*.

So called from the resemblance of the soft down and yellow colour of the antheræ of the catkins, to young geese.

GOTCH. A large pitcher, a big-bellied jug. Also Flemish.—It., *gotto*, a pot. *Gotch-gutted*, pod-bellied.

GO-RO. Of a knife, it 'Don't go to open' is not made to open—'don't go to come out'—'Ta don't go ta come off, dew it?'—'Is, ta dew.'

GO-TO-BED-AT-NOON. The common goat's-beard. *Tragopogon pratense*. Lin.

Gow. Let us go; abbr. of go we. A Suffolk farmer, speaking of the difference between the old and modern farmers' wives, observed, 'that when his mother called the maids at milking-time she never said go, but *gow*.'—*Forby*.

Ray has a proverb.—'Do not say go, but *gaw*, i. e., *go thyself along*.'

GRAIN. To gripe the throat, to strangle. In Suff., *green*. Not A. S., *gryne*, laqueus, Forby; but the Gael., *greimich*, to grasp, gripe. *Grained-fork*, a pronged fork. Sc., *grain*; Sw., *gren*, a branch, a prong, fork.

GRASS-WIDOW. In Suffolk, *Grace-widow*: a betrayed and deserted fair one.

GREASE. A faint suffusion over the sky, supposed to portend rain. Ex., 'the sky begins to *grease* up.' *Greasy*, foul, grassy, said of fallows. Also slimy, as of roads, after rain.

The ground is said to be *greasy* in a thaw, after slight frost.—*Baker's Northampt. Gloss.* Gael., *creis*; Lat. *crassus*; Fr., *gras*, fat.

GREEN-OLF. The green-finch, or green gosbeak. *Parus viridus*.

GREET, GRIPT. To graft, to dig. *Gript*, in Suffolk, slate pencil.

A. S., *graft*, carved, cut; Fr., *greffe*, a shoot for grafting; Dut., *greffie*, a cutting, also 'a slate-pen,' from *graphium*, a stylus, Gr., and Lat. *Graft*, a ditch, Frisie; *griffel*, slate pencil, Sw.

Graft, Craven and N. Ang. is the depth of a spade's bit in digging, from A. S., *grafan*, to dig, to carve; Isl., *grafi*, hence grave. Dan., *grøite*, to ditch, trench. Cumb., *greav*, to cut peat, dig; Whithy, *turf-greaving-time*,—autumn, when farmers near the moors *greave* or slice the turves off the surface with a spade, and stack to dry for winter fuel. *Graft*, to dig with a spade. Heref. Sir G. Lewis remarks, 'ground can be *graffed* when soft enough not to require a mattock.' In Yorks. (says Grose in Dig.) they distinguish between digging and graving, to dig is with a mattock, to grave with a spade. In Gloucester a 'grafting tool' is the strong spade in shape of a segment of a circle, used in digging canals and other very heavy work; in Northampts. a long tapering spade. *Gruff*, Somerset, is a mine; *gruffiers*, miners; Sw., *gruffva*, a mine; E. Ang., *grufled*, dirtied begrimed.

GRETT. A snare for hares. Also called *grynes*, *grynnies*. A. S., *gryn*, a snare; *grytte*, a spider's web.

'He spared nother hylle nor holte, busche, *gryne* nor *grett*.

Lord! he was fowle scrapyd!—*Lydgate's Prioress and her Lovers*.

GREWIN. A greyhound. In Scot., *gru* and *grew*. N. Ang., *grewond*.

The Isl. has *grey*, a hound; the A. S. *grig-hund*.

GREY-COAT PARSON. A lay impropiator of tithes.

GRILL OR GRIZZLE. To snarl or snap. 'How them there tew warment dew grill and grizzle at one another.'—*Moor*.

In Devon, to laugh or grin.—*Miss Palmer*.

Both convey the same idea. Dut. *grillen*, to shiver; Ger., *grinsen*, to snarl; *griseln*, to grin, simper, show one's teeth; Sw., *gräl*, a quarrel. Well., *grillian*, to gnash; *grunsgul*, to grin, snarl; Manx, *gyrn*,

'Tell you I chyll,

A whyle be styll,

That dwelt on a hyll,

If that ye wyll,

Of a comely gyll,

But she is not *gryll*.'

—*Skellon's Elinour Rummynge*.

GRIMBLE. To begrime. A diminutive. Isl., *grima*.

GRIMMER. A pond or mere with weed covered surface. A. S., *gren*, green; *mere*, pool.

'An old woman said 'the ground was so wet, I stuck all in the *grammer*.' I find no authority for the word, it is very local, but in some parts of the county well known.—*Miss Baker's Northampt. Gloss*.

GRINDLE, *grindlet*, *grip*, *grup*, *gripple* or *groop*. A little ditch or trench. A. S., *græp*; Dut., *greppel*; Fris., *groppe*, a trench, furrow, drain; Gael., *grinneal*, deep, gulphy.

Grip, *groop*, N. Ang. and Lanc., is the hollow running between a double row of cow-stalls in which the dung falls. '*Groupe*, where beestys, as nete standyn.—Pr. Pv. A. S., *græp*, latrina, says Skinner. '*Grype* or a *gryppel*, where watur rennythe a-way in a londe or watur-furrowe.—Pr. Pv. *Grip*, to make an open ditch, Heref; the hollows between furrows, Whitby.

'Item there is vij acres lond lying by the high weye toward the *grendyll*, not ferre from Herdwyk.—*Bury Wills* (John Baret's, 1463) *Camden Sy.*

GRINT. *Grit*. A participle of *grind*.

GRISSENS. Stairs. Craven, *grees* and *grice*. '*Grece* or *steyre*.' Pr. Pv. Fr. *degré*, a staire, step, *greese*.—Cotgr. Hence comes the der. of the *Grecian Stairs* at Lincoln.

Greece, a little brow, stairs, an ascent, Lanc. Manx, *greesh*.

This Pope went down into the erde a hundred *grecis* and fifty, and bond a dragon—*Capgrave's Chron.*

'To parte the lital botrie vnder the *gresys*.—*Bury Wills* (John Baret, A.D. 1463.) *Camden Sy.*

GROANING. A lying-in. *Groaning-cake* is made on such occasions.

Not to be confounded with the Manx *groonoays*, biestings or new curd of the milk of a cow, newly calved.

GROPE. 'Teach your grandame to *grope* her ducks.—*Ray's Proverbs*. Now-a-days the good old lady is taught 'to suck eggs.'

'*Gropyn* or *felyn wythe hande*.—Pr. Pv. A. S., *gropian*.

'Sum medelynge spyys, by craft to *grope* thy mynde'.—*Skelton*.

In remote country villages was (in my early days) an old woman exclusively possessing the secret of ascertaining whether or not a goose was duly impregnated, by *gropeing* in a peculiar manner with her finger. I recollected few things that I ever enjoyed more than palming a gander on a sapient beldam of this description, witnessing her sage researches, and listening with my wicked compeers to her remarks—*Major Moor*.

'It is not the Primitive Church shall beare out the Vicar of Little Down, in Norfolk, in *groaping* his own hennies, like a Cotqueane'.—*Nashe's Almond for a Parrot*, 1589.

Let him alone, and if he doe not know by a cowes water how many pintes of milke she will give in a year, then wyll he neuer help his wife to make cheese agayn whiles he liues: and without offence to his Pastorshippe bee it spoken, hee will sale pretly well to a henne, if she bee not too olde, always prouided shee haue a neaste of cleane strawe in his stude and hee *groape* her with his own hands evening and morning. Then see if he do not make three pounds a yeere of her over and above all costes and charges'.—*Ibid.*

GROUND-SWEAT. A person buried some time is said to have taken a *ground-sweat*.

GROUT. The thin fluid mortar used in building with flints.

'Dut., *gruisje*, morsels of stone; Isl., *grut*, dregs; *gruten*, muddy; '*grute*, fylthe'; Pr. Parv., A. S., *groot*, sand, dust.

Grouty, muddy, lees, dregs, in var. dial. *grout*, wort of the last running; N. Ang., from O. Fr., *gru*, malt; *grout*, implying ground malt; *growte* for ale, granomellum.—Pr. Pv. In Med. Lat., *grutum*. In Leices. says Bp Kennett, malt infused for ale before it is fully boiled is called *grout*, and before it is turned, wort. In the West a thick ale, called *grout-ale* is drank.—*Way's Notes to Pr. Pv.* *Grout-headed*, stupidly noisy, Sussex.

'Whist I am shuffling and cutting with these long-coated *Turks*, would any Antiquary would explicate unto me this Remblere or Quidity?—Whether these Turbanto *Grout-heads* that hang all men by the throats on iron hooks, even as our *Towers* hang all their Herrings by the throats on wooden spits, first learned it of our Herring-men, or our Herring-men of them?—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*, 1599.

GROWER. A cultivator. 'A great *grower* of hemp;' 'a *grower* of turkies, lambs, &c.'

GRUB. I.—Idle, nonsensical talk. II.—Constant toil, Essex.

I.—Ger., *grublei*, trifles. II.—*Gruben*, to dig

GRUB. A dirty little animal or child. Wel., *ysgrubyl*, beast like.

GRUBBLINS. Lying grovelling on the belly. A nurse lays a crying child *grubblins* on her lap to quiet it.—'I sah dew yeou lah that there child *grubblins*—'tull far the buttah faught.'

L. Sc., *gruffling*, Isl., *liggia a grifu*, to lie face downwards; *grifla*, to grovel.

GRUFFLE. To make a growling noise in the throat

L. Sc., *gruff*, discomposed slumber; Grisons, *grufflar*, to snore.—*Wedgewood*.

GRUMPY. Surly; in Suffolk, snaggy. A. S., *grum*; Gael., *gruaim*, fierce; Wel., *grum*, a growl.

GRUNNY. A hog's snout. *Grunnying*, the rootling of a pig's snout.

Isl., *tryni*; Fr., *groine*; N. Ang., *grune*; A. S., *grunan*, to grunt.

'The *Gruntyng* and the *groyninge* of the grounyng swyne.—*Skellon*.

GRUTCH. To grudge. '*Grutchyn, gruchyn*.'—Pr. Parv. Fr., *gruger*.—*Cotgr.*, 1632.

GULL. To sweep away by force of running water. Ex., 'The bank has been *gulled* down by the freshet,'—*Gull*, a breach made by the force of a torrent. *Gully-hole*, the mouth of a drain or sewer.

Dut., *gullen*, to suck down; Sc., *guller*, to gargle, guggle. Jam; Wel., *gwyll* wild, savage, rapid; Sui-Goth, *goel*, a whirlpool; Lat., *gula*, a throat, swallow.

GULLION. Stomach-ache, colic. Essex. O. Ger., *gölle*, bile. Gael., *goile*, the stomach; *caolan*, the intestines; Manx, *gollane*.

GULP. I.—The young of animals in their softest tenderest state;

Dut. *welp*. II.—A squabby diminutive person; in the sense of *collop*, a lump. III.—A severe blow or fall; var. of *culp*.

I.—Sui-Goth, *gul*; A. S., *geole*, yellow. Applied in Chesh., says Wilbraham, to young unfledged birds, from their yellowish plumage. Heref., *gull*, a gosting. The deriv. may be from the Wel., *gwyllaw*; Gael. *gul*, to cry; the Sc. has *gulin*, a young child.

Whitby, *gorps*, a bird just hatch'd. 'As naked as a *gorpin*. Teesdale, *gorbin*; Cumb. *gorlin*; Sc. *gorblet*. In the above N. Ang dial. the derivation seems an intens. of *gape*. *Gorby* being the term for a rustic, with eyes and ears wide agape. Sw. *grobjan*, a clown.

'As that ungentle *gull*, the cuckoo's bird.'—Henry, IV, v. i.

GULSH. Mud; also ribaldry, silly talk. See *culch*. Also plump, souse, applied to a heavy squashy fall, a squelcher. In the latter senses the word is also Mid. Ang. Wel., *golch*.

GULSKY. Corpulent and gross. In Northampts., *gulshing*.

Gael., *sult*, Isl., *svil*, fat; Dut., *gulseig*, gluttonous. Nares has *gulch*, a glutton, Latinized *ventricosus*; *gulschy*, gross in the body, Clydesdale; *gulsoch*, voracious. A *gulching*, or huge bellie, a bellie as big as a tunne.—*Cotgr.*, 1632. *Golsh*, to gulp down voraciously, Craven and Lanc.; to belch, Leeds; to *gulk* or *gulge*, to gulp greedily, Devon.; *gocken*, to be ravenous, Linc.; *gulschy*, greedy of drink, Salop.

GUMBLED. When waking, the eyes are said to be *gumbled* when not easily opened, but glued or gummed together. N. Ang., *gwoled*; Northampts., *gubbed* up.

GUMSHUS or *Rumgumshus*, quarrelsome. *Bumshus* and *Rumshus*.

Var. of *grumpy*, which see. Gael. *gruamach*, morose, surly. To *take the grumps*, to be ill-tempered; Scot., I am *gumple-fisted*, sulky, see *Redgauntlet*.

GOUNDY. Said of eyes running from secretions. A. S., *gund*, matter, pus; Yorks., *gunny*; Westm., *gunded*. 'Gownde of the eye, ridda.'—*Pr. Pv.*

'A goundy eye is deceyved soone.'—*Lydgate's Warres of Troy.*

'Her eyen goundy, Are full unsoundy.'—*Skellon.*

GUBBINGS. Parings, fragments, fish scraps, &c. See *Kiplins*.

Gubbins, fish fragments, bait, parings of haberdine, cod-fish, dog-fish, (Gael, *gobbag*, and *goibin*, sand-eel) &c. O. Fr., *gobeau*, a bit, gobbet, or morsel.

'All the meat that we eat we catch out of the sea, and if there we miss, well-washed and salted we sneak home to bed supperless; and upon the tail of it he bringeth in a parasite that flowteth and bourdeth them thus:—'Hough you hunger-starved gubbins or offals of men, how thrive you, how perish you?'—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff.*

GUGGE. A term which occurs in the Puritan Divinity of Essex.

Hardly the sense of '*gugaw*,' *Pr. Pv.*, to pipe, to trifle with, disport, the Fr., *goguer*; or of the Fr., *guigner*, to wink, blink, aim at with one eye; but rather a vulg. like the Walloon *geug*, to judge, admonish.

The Divell and his eldest sonne know well the complexions of carnall people, and when the gospel hath been preached twenty yeare together, yet people will long after the garlick and onions of old religion; and carnall reason, with her taile, sweepes downe a great part of the starres of heaven; we do but *gugge* and tire most men with our preaching of self deniall and faith.—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

One day this error of thine will *gugge* thee to the quicke, and cause thee to cry out.—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

GUNNER. A shooter; *gunning*, shooting; *gunning* boat, a light and narrow one used by the fenmen to pursue wild fowls along the drains and cuts.—East Anglicisms, common in the U. S.

Gunnare, he that swagyt the a gunne.—*Prompt. Parv.*

GURN. To grin, as a dog. Old English, says Forby.

The Sc. has *gurr*, and *gurl*, to snarl as a dog; Isl., *kurra*, Gael, *grunsgul*.

GUSH. A gust of wind. *Gussock*, a sudden gust.

It *guscio di vento*; Isl., *gustr*, *giostr*, a cold blast.—*Wedgewood.* Ger., *guss*, a gush.

GYLE. Wort. Dut., *gyl*. **GUILE-FAT**, a wort tub.

It occurs also in the Gloss. of Brockett, Jamieson and Ray. '*Gyylde*, or new ale.'—*Pr. Parv.* A guile of beer, a brewing.

GYP, to gut a herring, Sc.

The Scotch process of disembowelling a herring, done with instantaneous rapidity. In this the der. perhaps lies, as the term is neither Norse or Dutch. Sc., *gype*, keen, ardent in any operation; *gypelie*, nimbly, quickly; Isl., *gypa*, vorax, says Jamieson. The Sw. has *gippa* to whip up. *Gyp*, Leeds dial., to gasp for breath; a bather pushing another into the water makes him *gyp*. A fish *gyps* when out of the water.' Ger., *giepen*, to gape for breath. *Klip-fisk* is the term applied to the split and dried cod; the staple of the Norwegian fishery. Sw., *klippa*, to cut, shear.

Under *g* the absence in East Anglia of certain words common to the North Anglian dialects, is noticeable, such as gaily, gar, goupén, girt, gloaming, gradely, graith, &c.

HA'. To have. 'I'll *ha'* you bor, I'll *ha'* you.'

HACK, HECK, HALF-HACK. A hatch, a door divided across.

Heck, a latch; *heck-door*, the inner door; *half-heck*, the half or lower part of the door.—*Brockett's North Country Words.* *Heck-board*, a cart tail board, which lets down; is common to several Eng. dialects. '*Hec*, *hek*, or *hetche*, or at dore.'—*Pr. Parv.* *Hack* or *heck*, a hay rack.—'With *hek* and mangeoir.'—*Archæol.* xvii, 203. *Guichet*, a wicket or hatch of a doore.—*Cotgr. Fr. Dict.*

Dut., heck, a barrier of lath or trellis, a grating, gate. A *heck-door*, N. Ang., is one partly latticed and partly panelled.

Theyre browys all to-broken, such clappys they cach;

Whose jawlawys malycyous makyth them to lepe the *hack*.—*Skellon*.

HACK. To stammer, to chop words in pieces. *Dut.* and *Ger.*, *hacken*, to chop up; *Dan.*, *hakke*; *Fr.*, *hacher*; *Bret.*, *hakein*; *Cumb.*, *hakkar*. Applied also to a violent cough.

'A faint, tickling, incessant cough, is its Norfolk meaning; a short, hard, cutting cough in the South. The last is the American application of the terms.'—*Elwyn*.

Dorset., *hacker*, teeth chattering from cold or fright. In the N. Ang., *hacked* is applied to chapped hands or feet. In *Cumb.* *hack* is to cut or hack. In *Northampts.*, hay is *harked* or *hackled*, when after tedding it is put in small rows. *Hack*, *Somerset*, the spot where bricks are ranged to dry.

'Thus shall we sort out eternity into as many kinds and lengths, as the *Darbyshire* huawife does her puddings, when she makes whittings and blackings, and liverings and *hackings*; and 'tis pitty for fooling sake that we cannot tye a string at the end of all alike.—*Fairfax*.'

HACK. A hard-working man.—*Suf.* Also a hedge. *Dut.*, *heck*.

Hack, a hoe or pick-axe, *Dorset* and *N. A.*; *Dut.*, *hak*, grubbing axe.

HACKLE. I.—To shackle. II.—Also a fastening applied to cows to prevent their kicking when being milked. *Var.* of *Sc.* *hapsechackle*. *Hackle*, *N. Ang.*, to dress, as flax, to trim up.

HACK-STAMMERING. Stammering and sputtering like a dunce at lessons. *Dut.*, *hakkelen*, to stutter. *Dan.*, *hakke*; *Cumb.*, *hakkar*.

HAFFEREN. Unsettled, unsteady. 'A go *haferen* about.' *Scot.*, *haver*, to talk foolishly; *haverel*, a fool. *N. Ang.*, *haffle*, to waver, stammer. To 'haffle and snaffle,' to stammer and speak through the nose; to hesitate.—*Whitby*. *Hifer*, to loiter.—*U. S.* *Huffle*, to waver.—*Devon*.

Isl., *gifr-a*, loquitur *hefer*, garrulus, writes *Jamieson*. *Dut.*, *haperen*, to stammer; *Sw.*, *happla*. The *Wel.* has *yuyd*, foolish; *Gael*, *aifir*; *Heb.*, *epher*, symbolum levitatis.

HAGGY. Applied to the broken surface of the soil, when wet.

The same when dried and hardened is termed *hobbly*.

In the North, a *hag*, is a boggy quagmire. *Ex.*, a *peat-hag*; *Isl.*, *hagga*, to shake. On the *Yorks.* coast a *hag* is a mist, *cor.* of *haze*. *Haggy*, applied to coarse uneven ground in *Mid Ang.* woodland districts. *Isl.*, *hagi*; *Sw.*, *hage*.

HAHM or **HAWHM.** Wheat stubble. Applied also to *risps*, the green straw or runners of potatoes and pease, and the stubble of beans. *Fr.*, *chaulme*.—*Cotgr.* *Dorset*, *hame*.

'Mown *haulm* being dry, no longer let lie.'—*Tusser*.

It occurs in a similar sense in *Ray's S. & E. Country Words*. *A. S.*, *healm*, *Fris.*, and *Dan.*, *halm*; *Isl.*, *halmr*, stubble.

'The *haulm* is the straw of the wheat or the rye,

Which once being reaped, then mow by and by.'—*Tusser*.

HAHNET. A hornet. 'Nine *hahnets* 'al sting a hoss ta dead,'—*Suffolk* saying. *Ray* has *horniole*, a *Suffolcism* for hornets; a term *Moor* says he never heard.

HAHNSEY. The large heron or hernshaw. Called also from its note, *frank* or *fraank*. Doubtless the original of *Shakspeare's*—'I know a hawk from a hand-saw.'—*Hamlet* II. 2. That is, a hawk, from the heron it pursues. A *cor.* of *Fr.*, *heronceau*, a young heron.

'Item a *Hernesew* of Store.—*L'Estrange Household Account*, 1519.

HAIFER. I.—To toil. II.—Suff., to higgie, from A. S., *heofan*, to mourn.—*Forby*.

I.—Isl., *Haf*, to heave; *hafandi*, burdensome; *hafserma*, to load heavily; or the Wel., *traferth*; Gael., *saohair*, to toil, labour, trouble; Bret., *chifa*, inquiet, are more likely der. II.—See *Haferen*.

HAINISH. Unpleasant. Suff. The Gael., *ainideach*, vexing, gall-ing. A. S., *hean*, needy, despised. N. Ang., *hooed*, ill-treated.

HAKE. A pothook; the dentated iron head of a foot plough. Isl., *haka*; Dut., *hake*, hook; Dan., *hage*. Bret., *higen*, a fish-hook.

HAKE. To toil, particularly in walking. Often joined with *hatter*.

‘He has been *haking* and *hattering* all day long. Also to loiter.

At every ale stake, With welcome *hake* and make, (mate)

By the bread that God brake, I am sorry for your sake.—*Skelton*.

Sc. and N. Ang., *haik*, to saunter; *haigle*, to walk, much fatigued; Bailey has *hake*, to gape after, to sneak, loiter; Dut., *haaken*, to hanker after; *Hakes*, an idle lounge, Craven; a *Hallacks*, Leeds. *Hattering*, the Sc., *hatter*, to be in a confused but moving state, ‘a *hatterin*’ Dumfries. See *hatter*.

Hake, to tire, distress, applied in Cumb. to over-cropped, exhausted land; ‘haking about, prying, Whitby; also to teaze, worry one with askings. *Hakasing*, tramping about, Linc. Possible a cor. of *hawk*.

The Ger. has *hocker*, a huckster, from *hocken*, to heap together, to take upon the back. Our *hawker* may der. from this or from Isl., *hauga*, to heap up, or as Wedgewood suggests, Norse, *hauka*, to cry, shout; Fr., *hucher*. The Sw. has *hökare*, chandler; *hökeri*, higgling.

HALF-HAMMER. The game of hop, step, and jump.

HALF-ROCKED. O’afish, silly. Elsewhere half-baked, half-saved.

HALSE. To hug, embrace, hang on to. A. S., *hals*, the neck.

Dut., *halsen*, to embrace. *Halsynge* or dallynge, *amplexus*.—*Pr. Pv.* Isl., *helsa*; Dan., *hilse*, to salute; *hilsen*, greeting

Halsethe and *kissethe* and wol hym not with-seyne.—*Lydgate*.

The ryuers rowth (rough), the waters wan;

She sparyd not to wete her fete;

She wadyd ouer, she found a man,

That *halseyd* her hartely and kyst her swete.

Thus after her cold she coughte a hete.—*Skelton*.

HAMBER. A hammer. So also in East Anglia, manner is pronounced mander; banner, bander, &c. Heref., *homber*.

The foreseid Jubal proporcioned his musik after the sound of Jubal *hamberes*.—*Capgrave*.

Masyd, wytyles, smery smyth.

Hampar with your hammer upon thy styth.—*Skelton*.

HAMMER-SPOTS. The dappling of a fine coated horse. Isl., *hamr*; A. S., *hama*, skin. ‘Hence yellow-hammer, hammer-cloth, the skin cloth, usually of bear’s skin.’—*Miss Gurney*.

Hame, thyn skynne of an eye or other lyke.—*Pr. Pv.*

HAND. To sign. ‘They made me *hand* a paper.’

HAND. Performance. To make a hand on, to waste, destroy.

HAND of pork. The shoulder joint, cut without the blade bone.

HAND over head. Thoughtlessly extravagant, *Hand-smooth*, worn threadbare, or anything very smooth.

HANDLE, the, of a knife or small tool is called a *haft*; of a hatchet or axe, *helve*; of a flail, *handstaff*; of a spade, *skuppatt*; muck-fork, *tiller*; rake or long fork, *stale*; of a pump, *swake*; long

pitch-fork, *sheath*. A scythe-stick is a *sneath* or *snaithe*.—*Raynbird's Agr. of Suffolk*.

Haft. A. S. and Dan., *haft*; Sw., *häfte*; Isl., *hefti*, a handle. *Helve*. A. S., *helf*; Ger., *helm*. The remainder see under their heads. The nomenclature of our Agricultural Implements is Teutonic and Scandinavian.

HAND-STAFF. The longer limb of the flail, held by the thrasher.

HANG. I.—A crop of fruit. 'I've a fairish *hang* o' nuts ta year.'

II.—A declivity. Isl., *hanga*.

HANG-SLEEVE. A dangler; an officious but unmeaning suitor.

HANG-SUCH. A worthless fellow. N. Ang., *hang-gallows*.

HANK. A door or gate fastening. Isl., *hanki*, a strap or chain;

Sw., *hank*, a tie-band. A chain or hook fastening is a *hasp*, writes Moor. Ger., *hespe*; Swed., *haspe*; A. S., *hæps*.

HAP. To cover, wrap up. E. and N. Ang., *happing*, a coverlet;

Hap-harlot, a coarse coverlet. A. S., *heapian*, to heap together.

The Gael, has *brat-uallach*, a coverlet, swathing. Bailey has *happerlet*, a coarse bed covering; *Harle*, is the stem or straw of flax, separated from the filament.—*Jamieson*. 'Lappyn, or whappyn yn clothes, (happyn to-gedyr) wrap to-geder in clothes, *involve*.' Pro. Parv. See note *antle*, on *dagoled*, from which *hop harlots* seem to have been bed coverings of a coarse material. *Hop*, in East Anglia, was used in the sense of wrap or wlap, of which Wedgewood conceives it to be a corruption. In the *Paston Letters*, John Paston writes, 'I pray yow ye woll send me hedir ij elne of worsted for dobletts, to *happe* me thys colde wynter.' *BIRLET* was an old English form for a coif, hood or knitted cloak, see Bailey. Cotgr. 1632, has '*bourlet*, a wreath, or a roule of linnen cloth, or leather; also the hood worn by graduates, lawyers, and citizens at their assemblies.' Possibly *hap-harlot* is a cor. of the two words.

Happin, Craven, is a rug or coverlet; also any clothing, thick and warm. *Happins*, thick woollen bed covers, woven carpet wise, Cumb.; bed clothes, Leeds. *Hap-harlot*, a coverlet for a servant.—*Brockell's N. Ang. Words*. *Harlot* was originally not appropriated to a female, nor even to a person of bad character.

'He was a gentel *harlot* and a kind,

A better felaw sholde a man not finde.'—*Chaucer*.

'*Harlot*, remarks Wedgewood, simply signified a young man; Wel., *herlod*, a youth, stripling; *herlodes*, a damsel.

HARBER. A cor. of the *horn beam* or *hard beam*.

HARDS. I.—Coarse flax, otherwise *tow-hards*. *Harden*, strong, coarse, hempen cloth; N. Ang., *hurdis*, ropes; A. S., *heordas*, refuse of tow. 'Fr., *hard*, string, *harde*, rope.'—*Diez*. II.—

Very hard cinder, the calx of pit coal imperfectly vitrified. Sw., *hård*, the hearth of a forge.

No such iron-fisted Cyclops to hew it out of the flint, and run through anything as these frost-bitten, crab-tree-faced lads, spun out of the *hards* of the Tow, which are Donsel Herring Lackies, at Yarmouth every fishing.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

HARNSEY-GUTTED. Lank and lean. See *Hahnsey*, ante.

HARREN. Made of hair. Dut., *haren*.

HARRIAGE. Confusion. 'I think I have heard that, in the south part of Suffolk, the phrase 'he is gone to Harwich,' means he is gone to rack and ruin.'—*Forby*.

It may be a local manufacture from the verb *harry*; A. S., *heryian*, to plunder, afflict., Isl., *heria*, to plague; Dan., *hærje*, to ravage. O. Fr., *harier*, to vex, trouble.—*Cotgr*. 'I'm sadly *harrish'd*,' worn out; harrishing weather,

cold and stormy, Craven. *Harry*, a country man, boor, Craven. *Hare*, to make wild, *harum-scarum*.—*Ray's E. A. Words*. A sea-harr, a storm, Linc.; A. S., *hærn*, a wave. A *Harry-gaud*, a rigsby, a wild girl.—*Ray's N. Ang. Words*; a blackguard.—*Brockell*.

HARRY-CARRIERS. The Yarmouth Trollies. See *hurry-carriers*.

HARVEST-BEEF. Any kind of butcher's meat, eaten in harvest.

HARVEST-LORD. The principal reaper who goes first and regulates the movements of the rest. *Harvest-Lady*, the second reaper in the row. In Cambridgeshire, the *harvest queen*. The man who goes for the beer and pours it out is called 'the steward.'

HASE, HASLET. The heart, liver, &c., of a hog, seasoned, wrapped up in the omentum and roasted. Old Fr., *hastille*, entrails.

A small pig's fry or roast; Fr., *haste*, a spit or broach. Cotgr. '*Hastlere*, that rostythe mete.' Pro. Parv. Lat., *assator*; Scot., *fraise*. Dut., *harst*, a roast.

HASSOCK. I.—Coarse grass growing in rank tufts on boggy ground. II.—A bass of matted rush. *Haske*, a fisher's basket.

These *hassocks*, in bogs, were formerly taken up with a part of the soil, matted together with roots, shaped, trimmed and dressed, a sufficient part of their shaggy and tufted surface being left to make kneeling much easier than on the pavement of the church, or the bare-boarded floor of a pew. Some remains of them are still to be found in some of our meaner parish churches, particularly in the fens.—*Forby*. Scot., a besom, anything bushy, as a *hassick of hair*; a large round turf, used as a seat.—*Jam.* Sw., *hwass*, a rush. Sp., *haz*, a bundle of hay or grass.

'Then till the sun, which yet in fishes *hasks*.

Or wat'ry urn, impounds his fainting head.'—*P. Fletcher*.

HASSOCK-HEAD. A shock head, bushy, matted and entangled.

Fin., *hassa*, tangled, shaggy; Sw., *hässla*, a bunch of flax.

HASTINGS. An early variety of pea.—*Suf*.

Some indeed are so base and perverse, that they rather are moved to prich and disdain by their inferiour's forwardnesse, calling them *hastings*, soone ripe, soon rotten; ragged colts make the better horses.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

HATTER. To harrass and exhaust with fatigue. Sc., *hatter*, to be in a confused moving state, to totter. *Hottering*, limping lame, Whitby. A. S., *ateran*, to fatigue, tire; Isl., *haltra*, halt, lame. See *Hake*.

The N. Ang. *hetter* (Craven, *hitter*) has an opposite meaning, that of eager, earnest, keen; Chesh., *hattle*.

HAUGHTY weather. Windy, blustering.

HAW. The ear of oats. **HAYER,** oats. See **AVEL**.

Craven, *havver*; Old Fr., *haveron*, wild oats; Sw., *hafre*; Dut., *haver*; Manx, *heel*, threshed oats.

HAWKEY, HOCKEY, the feast at harvest home. *Hawkey-load*, the last load of the crop, formerly led home with rustic pageantry, decorated with flags, streamers and garlands, and attended by masquers and mummers, foremost among whom revelled my Lord and Lady.

In Suffolk, called *horkey* 'Now, writes Raynbird, in his Prize Essay on Suffolk Agriculture, the horkey is kept at public houses or cottages instead of at the master's; a sum of money being allowed to each man in place of supper. The same writer quotes from Sharpe's Mag., Vol. II, a lengthy account of the usages attending the East Anglian *horkey*, its songs, ditties, healths, &c. *Bloomfield* has a ballad on the Suffolk *Horkey*, modelled *longo intervallo* on Burns' *Halloween*.

Intractable to an etymologist, remarks Forby, not unlikely derived from the ballooning which forms so marked a feature of the *horkey*.

Norse, *hauka*, to shout. Wel., *hwa*. Med. Lat., *huccus*, a cry. Hence *hawker*, *huckster*.

HAY. A hedge, specially one of clipt quickset. Old Fr., *haye*; A. S., *haga*; Ger., *hag*. *Hay-net*, a hedge-net. *Hay-jack*, the lesser reed-sparrow, or sedge-bird.

A *hay-net* is a long low net, 30 or 40 yards long, by one yard high, placed upright by stakes along hedges, or in *slays* cut through whin covers, &c., to prevent the transit of rabbits from side to side when hunted by dogs.

Paid to Stephen Pereyre for a *haye*, of 1 fathom long, *xs.*—*L'Estrange's Household Accounts*, 1519.

HAZE, HAZLE. To dry linen, &c., by hanging it in the fresh air.

Rows of Corn are said to be *hazed* when a brisk breeze follows a shower. Land drying after being turned up by the plough is left to *haze* before harrowing. *Hazle*, dim., to grow dry attop. Fr., *Hasler*, to scorch in the sun.—*Cotgr.* Isl., *hæsa*, to dry in the wind. Dan., *hæs*, stack, rick. *Hazle*, stiff as clay, &c., Essex.

Thou, who by that happy wind of thine didst *hazle* and dry up the forlorn dregs and slime of Noah's deluge.—*Rogers' Naaman, the Syrian*.

HEAD. Face. 'I told him so to his *head*.'

HEAD-ACHE. The wild field poppy.

HEADS and HILLS, HUMPS and HOLLS. Pell-mell and topsy-turvy.

Sw., *härs och tvärs*; Fr., *pesle-mesle*, all on a heap.—*Cotgr.* Fris., *hulla de butler*.

HEADSWOMAN. A mid-wife. N. Ang., *howdy*.

HEART. The stomach. *Heart spoon*, the pit of the stomach.

HEAVE. To pour corn from the skuffle before the wind. Isl., *hefta*.

Also to swell out elevate; go before the wind. See *hefty*.

'Nor walking in the streets (of Yarmouth) so many weeks together, could I meet with any of these swaggering Captains (Captains that wore a whole ancient in a scarf, which made them go *heave-shouldered*, it was so boisterous), or hufftuffty, youthful, ruffling comrades, wearing every one three yards of feather in his cap for his mistress's favour, such as we stumble on at each second step at Plymouth, Southampton, and Portsmouth.'—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

HEAVING and SHOVING. Jostling, hustling, lifting and thrusting.

And here is great *heaving and shoving* by my Lord of Suffolk and all his counsel for to espy how this matter came about.—*Paston Letters*, A.D., 1440.

HEDGE-ACCENTOR. The hedge sparrow.

HEFTY. Rough. *Hefty* weather; a *hefty* sea. Dan. and Ger., *heftig*.

HEIFER. A heifer, a metathesis. A Runcton will, Norfolk, in 1579, bequeaths certain *heckfordes* or *heckforthes*, heifers.

Hekfere, beeste or styrke.—Pr. Pv. *Heckford*, a young cow.—Palgr. A. S., *heahfore*; Dut., *hokkeling*.

A 'black hewed *hecfurth*' occurs in the will of Thomas Hovell, of Burwell, 1540. 'A black stered *heckforde*' in the will of Ryecharde Kanam, Soham, 1579.

HEIGH'N. To heighten. Invariably applied to increase of prices, wages, &c.—*Forby*. 'Heynyn, heightyn, exalto.'—Pr. Pv.

See notice, page 285, of the '*heyning money*' levied on herrings by the Yarmouth Corporation.

Where by the way in a green meadow, thou espied'st a poor drunken beggar, (his belly being full,) *heighing*, leaping and dancing.—*Nashe's Christ's Tears*.

HEIR. To inherit. 'His son will *heir* his estate.'

HEIT. The cry by which cart horses are turned to the left. *Ree*, prolonged with a shake, to the right.

The carter smote, and cryde as he were wode,

Heit Scot! Heit Brok! what, spare ye for the nonce,

'The fend ye fetch,' quoth he, 'body and bones.'—*Chaucer's Freer's Tale*.

'Scot and Brok are still Suffolk names for cart-horses.—*Moor*.

Heck, applied to draught horses to come near. *Gie*, to go to the right.

Hett, *heck*, and *hauve*, to turn to the left, Craven. In Germany *hott* is the driver's cry 'to the right'; *ho*, to the left.

HELP-UP. To assist or support; Ironical. 'I am finely *help-up*.'

'A man is well *help up* that trusts in you.'—*Comedy of Errors*.

HEN-POLLER. A poultry loft or roost. Ital., *pollajo*, a hen-roost.

HEN'S-NOSE-FULL. A very minute quantity.

HERNE. A nook of land projecting into another district, parish or field. A. S., *hyrne*, a horn, corner; Sw., *hörn*. 'Halke or *hyrne*, angulus.—*Pr. Pv.* A, S., *heal*, an angle.

HERRING.

A. S., *hæring*; O. H. G., *harinc*; Ger., *hering*; Dut., *haering*, also *nëring*; Ger., *nährung*, nourishment, food. In Sp., *arenque*; Wal., *hëring*. Baltic, *ströhmiling*; when smoked, *bückling*. Konn and *kenpe*, Livonia; *sill*, in Swed., when large; *ströming*, when small; *Sild*, *Quale-Sild*, and *Grabeen Sild*, Denmark, large, and when small, *strömling*; *Straale-sild* and *gaate-sild*, Norway; *kapeselikan*, Greenland; *Beltschutsch*, Kamtschatka. *Jyder*, dried herring Dan.; *Sgadan*, herring, Gael. and Wel., also *penwaig*, Wel.

In England a herring is popularly known as a Yarmouth capon. In Scotland, a Dunbar wether, a cuddy's legs; in the U. S., a Taunton Turkey.

HET. Heated, (Dorset, Suff., and U. S.,) 'Ta *het i th* goof.' A. S., *hete*, heat. Also abbr. of have it. 'I oont *het*.' N. Ang., *hett*.

HEW, Hooded. A. S., *hiewe*. Also who. 'Hew *hew* them there tahnups.'

The usual Suffolk mode of pronouncings preterites of verbs ending in *oo* or *ow* is with an acute *u*; a most striking Suffolk localism remarks *Moor*. 'He *snew* that there stuvva.' *Ewe*, for owed; *snew*, for snowed, *thew*, thawed. The acute *u* appears in such words as the following:—fule, guse, lewæ, mune, skule, stule, sune, tule, &c.

HEW'D. Held. 'A nivva *hewd* up a's hid aater.' Also *who would*, abbreviated.

HEY-HOWING. Thieving of yarn from the master weavers.

A. S., *heveld*, thread; *kelan*, to hide.

HICCUP, SNICKUP. The hiccough or hiccup. Dan., *hikke*.

HICK. To hop or spring. Wel., *dyclam*, a leap; A. S., *hiegan*, to struggle.

HICKLE. To make shift with indifferent quarters; to double up, as two beds in a room; to gather in a little heap.

To hickle one's self into lodgings,—or a pig into a sty already sufficiently occupied. Wel., *dycluz*, hemmed in; A. S., *hiegan*, to wriggle.

HIGGLE. Apart from its sense of chaffering and bargaining, has in East Anglia that of effecting results by minute continued effort. The poor talk of '*higgling* up a pig,' i. e., buying and fattening it in that way. A. S., *higian*, to endeavour, strive. Also to rear an animal that has lost its dam.

HIGGLEDY-PIGLEDY. All heads and tails, like cuddling pigs.

Dan., *hyggelig*, snug, cosy; *hyggelighed*, cosiness.

HIKE. To go away. Used also as an angry mandate. 'Come yo' hike off.' Isl., *hika*, recedere.—*Jam.* A. S., *higan*, to hie. See *pike*.

Hike and *hipe*, to push with the horns, Craven. Dorset, *hook*; Somerset, *hoke*; Heref., *hile*.—*Hike*, to swing, as a nurse does a child. The *hiking* of a boat. *Hipe*, to rip or gore with the horns of cattle.—*Brockett's North Country Words.* *Hike*, to move hastily; *hikey*, a swing, Northampts.

HILLP, HILLS. Lees, dregs, settlings, heel-taps.

Wilts., *hill*, to pour out. N. Ang., *helle*; Isl., *hella*; Dan., *helde* A. S., *hyldan*, to incline, stoop the cask. Scot., *hilliegeleerie*, topsy turvy.

And by that time his tobacco merchant is made even with, and he hath dined at a tavern, and slept his under-meal at a bawdy-house; his purse is on the *heild*, and only forty shillings he hath behind to try his fortune with, at the cards in the Presence.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff.*

HIMP, to limp.

Poor fulla, 'a go *himpin* about.' Scot., *hamp*, to halt in one's gait. Craven, *hamkin*, walking lame. Dan., *hinke* and *humpe* to limp. Isl., *hinkra*. Pl. Dut., *humpeln*, to limp. The *Pricke of Conscience* has *hypan*, halting; Isl., *happ*. 'Hope came *hippyng* after.'—*Piers Ploughman.*

HINDER. Yonder. '*Hinder* 'a go.'

HINGIN. A hinge. Sw., *hänge*. *Hingle*, a small hinge; a wire snare closing like a hinge. Poachers are said to *hingle* hares and rabbits.—*Forby.* *Hengoll*, a pot hook; *hingle*, a bottle neck. *Hengyl* of a dore or wyndowe, vertebra; *hengyl*, gymewe, vertinella.—*Pr. Pv.* *Angelhoek*, fish-hook, Fris.; *hengen*, A. S., a prison; Dut., *henghen*, to hang; *hengsel*, a hinge.

'It pd for *hengells*, verdolls and hoks, hespes and staples for ye same berne, vjs. vijd.'—*L'Estrange Household Accounts.* 1519.

HIPPANY. Part of an infant's swaddling clothes. Scot., *hippen*, a cloth for wrapping the hips or buttocks; North., *hippings*.

HITCH. To change place, make room. *Hitch-in*, wriggle in; '*hitch* your chair aside,—make way for another.' '*Hitch* it this waah.' In Suff., *hitch* (Dorset, *hick*) is also to hop on one foot.

Dut., *hutselen*, to shake or huddle together. *Hotch*, to move the body by jerks, Scot. Isl., *hika*, cedere. '*Hylchyn* or remevyn, amoveo.'—*Pr. Pv.*

HYTHE. A small port, a landing place. A. S., *hyth*.

Occurs on navigable rivers, as the Thames, Yare, Ouse, &c., up the stream.

HOB, HUB. The nave of a wheel; flat top of a kitchen range side; the mark for quoits and similar games; the hilt or guard of a weapon, e. g., 'up to the *hub*,' as far as possible.

In most of these instances the idea is that of a point, knob, or projection, as *hob-nails*. Dut., *hobbelig*, knobby. Wel., *hob*, anything apt to rise or swell out. Dan., *hob*, heap; N. Ang., *hub*, a small haystack.

HOBBLE. A doubt, uncertainty, scrape. Belg., *hobble*, nodus.—*Forby.* Sw., *hoplappa*, to patch. *Hobble-bobble*, confusion.

HOBBLE-DE-POISE. Balanced in mind like a rocking stone.

HOBBLES. Roughnesses in a road. Ice frozen in ridges is called *hobbly*. In the U. S. *hubby*; Dut., *hobbelig*, rugged, craggy.

HOBBY. A horse of any size, a hack. Dan., *hoppe*, a mare. Fris., *hoppe*, a horse in nursery parlance; Craven, *houpy*, used only by children. O. Fr., *hobin*, a nag; It., *ubino*.

HOBBY-LANTHORN. A will-of-the-whisp, from its motion.

HOBBIDHOY. A lad approaching manhood.

Ray has *hober-de-hoy*, half a man and half a boy. Scot. *hobble-de-hoy* a stripling. 'The next keep under Sir Hobbard de Hoy.'—*Tusser.*

Hocs and Hoes The feet and leg bones of swine.

The A. S. has *hoc*, a curved stick, (whence *hockey*); *ho*, the heel. Ger., *hakse*, the foot joint of a horse's hind leg. In Linc., *hock*, is to kick.

HODDING-SPADE. One used in the fens, shaped to take up large portions of earth entire. Dan., *hob*, a heap; Sw., *hop*, to heap, pile.

HODDY. I.—Pretty well in health and spirits. Wel., *hoedyl*, existence, act of living; *hoedlog*, enjoying life.—*Richards' Wel. Dict.* II.—The uppermost width of a net. A. S., *hod*, the head

Seems to convey the sense of jogging along all right. *Hod*, Sc., is to jog. **HODDLE**, to waddle.

HODMANDOD. The Suffolk term for a snail, as *dodman* is the Norfolk. In Northampts., *hod-dod*.

Bacon enumerates the *hodmandod* or *dodman* amongst fish that cast their shells. Nares has *hoddy-pike*, a snail. The only difference, according to some, between a Norfolk and a Suffolk man is, that one calls a snail, *dodman*, the other, *hodmadod*. *Hodmadod*, Dorset and Northampt., a bunchy, dumpy thing.

Other spoil or victory, will prove a busy piece of work for the son of a mule, a raw grammarian, a brabbling sophister, a counterfeit crank, a stale rakehell, a piperly rhymmer, a stump worn raller, a dodkin author, whose two swords are like the horns of a *hodmadod*; whose courage like the fury of a gad bee; and whose surmounting bravery like the wings of a butterfly.—*Gab. Harvey's Pierce's Supererogation*, 1593.

HOGGET. **HOG.** A year-old sheep, after its first shearing. N. Fr., *hogetz*. *Hog-wool*, the first fleece in shearing lambs.

HOGGINS. Sand sifted from gravel before the stones are carted upon the roads.

From the jogging motion of the sieve. Isl., *hagga*, to jog.—*Wedgewood*.

HOG-GRUBBING. Swinishly sordid. **HOGLIN**, an apple turnover.

HOG-OVER-HIE. The game of leap-frog. **HOG-WEED**, knotgrass.

HOG-SEEL. The thick skin on the neck of a hog. Sw., *skal*, skin.

HOISE. To heave or raise aloft. Dan., *heise*.

To which I resemble poor scullians, that from turning spit in the chimney corner, are on the sodayne *hoysed up* from the kitchen into the waiting chamber, or made barons of the beanes and marquesses of the mary-boanes; some by corrupt water, as gnats, to which we may liken Brewers, that, by retayling filthy Thames water, come in few yerres to be worth fortie or fiftie thousand pound.—*Nashe's Pierce Penilesse*, 1592.

HOIST. A cough. A. S., *hwosta*. Isl., *hosti*. *Hoste*, *huse* and *hauste*, N. Ang.; Cumb., *heuzz*, hoarseness. 'Hoose or coughe.'—*Pr. Pv.*

HORT-A-POIT. Assuming unbecoming airs of importance.

Hoit, Craven dialect, is an ill taught, spoilt child. *Poif*, in East Anglian, is extremely pert. The Fr. has *haute tête*.

HOLL. I.—A ditch, a dry ditch. To clean out or fey a ditch, is called out-*holling* it. A. S., *holh*, a ditch. II.—Also hollow. A. S., *hol*.

HOLLOW-MEAT. Poultry, rabbits, game, not sold by butchers.

HOME-DONE. Said of meat fully cooked, well roasted.

'Do you love your meat *home-done* or rear?' *Reer*-meat, in Suffolk, is said to be 'too much under-done.'—*Moor*.

HONEY-CRACH. A small plum of great sweetness, but little flavour. *Croch*, Gael., red; also to hang, suspend. *Croic*, a skin; Wel., *crac*, puny

HOP-CREASE. Hop-scotch. A *Scotch* is a cut or *crease*.

HOPPING-GILES. One who limps, a cripple, of whom St. Giles was patron saint.

HOPPLE. A tether to confine the legs of beasts, leaving them only a *hobbling*, limping movement. (N. Ang., *hoffsle*; U. S., *hobble*.)

Also a place for hogs. *Hoppling*, tottering, applied to children.

Analogous are the Sc., *habble*; Swed., *happla*, to stutter; Dut., *hobbelen*, to rock in motion. See also der. of *himp*. *Hobble* is a dimin. of the A. S., *hoppian*; Swed., *hoppa*, to hop.

Hobblers, men employed in towing vessels by a rope on the land.—Somerset.

HOP-TO. A grasping fellow. **HOFFET.** A small close nigh home.

HORNER-SCORNER. The game of prison bars.

HORN-PIE. The lap wing. *Horn* from its tuft-*pie*, its plumage.

HORNS. The *awns* of barley. Not an unmeaning corruption.

HORSE-MA-GOG. Boisterously frolicsome; a large coarse person. Dan., *horsegiög*, whinnying, neighing.

HOSE. The sheath or spathe of an ear of corn. In severe drought, when barley should come into ear, it is apt 'to stick in the *hose*' and perish.

Dan., *hase*, husk; Wel., *ydyn ci'hosan*, corn before the ears burst out.—*Owen's Wel. Dict.* In Suffolk, fleas are said to be particularly brisk thrice a year, at oat-sahwen, oat-hahwen or hosing, and oat-mahwen.

HOST, HOSTLER. A name formerly given by the buyers to the fish sellers at the Yarmouth Free Fairs, who also lodged their customers.—See note, page 341, and page 283.

'*Host* is still used at Hastings for a vendor of articles out of shops or houses.'—*Cooper's Sussex Gloss.*

'Every person not lotting or shooting to the common charge of the Corporation, who should be a common *houle* in the fish-market.'—*Hastings Corporation Records*, 1604.

HOT POT. Warmed ale and spirits.—Norf. and Sussex coast.

HOUNCE. The leather ornament fastened across the shoulders or *wallis* of horses in a team, trimmed with red or yellow worsted fringe. Teams carrying corn to market, or on any public display, were *hounced*. Hence the Essex phrase *behounded*, tricked up, made fine. Northampt., *houzen*; Fr., *houssé*.—Cotgr. Wel., *hws*.

'*Hawnoyn* or *heynyn*, exalto.'—*Pr. Pv.*

Richardson derives *enhance* from the Fr., *hausser*, to hoise, raise aloft, and *haunce* would seem to proceed from the same.

'He doth no pastour's offyce that robeth Christen kinges of their princely power and autorite to *enhance* the tyrrannous vsurpacyons of Antichrist.'—*Bale*.

HOUSE. To grow thick and compact as corn does.

A 'mouton *houssu*,' Fr., a sheep well woolled, of great burthen.—Cotgr.

HOUSE, HOUGHTS. A contemptuous name for large, coarse feet, as being like a beast's hoofs. A. S., *hos*, heel; Dan., *houg*, hoof.

HOVEN. Blown out, swollen, as cattle by eating too much green clover; or as turnips, by a rank growth in strong wet soil.

Dan. and N. Ang., *hoven*, swollen; Wal., *houzé*.

'Tom Piper hath *hoven* and puffed-up cheeks.'—*Tusser*.

HUCKLES. The hips, *huckle* bone, the hip bone. N. Ang., *huggan*.

The Wel. has *hwca*, hooked, crooked; A. S., *hoc*. The Dut. has *huck*, to crouch; Dan., *huk*, nook, angle; Sw., *huka*, to squat down.

A rybbe of seynt Rabarts, with the *huckyll* bone of a Jewe.—*Bale*.
The bones of her *huckels* Lyke as they were with buckels
Together made fast.—*Skellon's Elynour Rummyng*.

'For getting up on stump and huckle,
He with his foe began to buckle.'—*Hudibras*.

HUDDERIN. A well-grown lad, a *hobbity*.

The Wel. has *hurt* and *hurtan*, a stupid fellow; the Gael., *ludragan*, a lout, awkward, and shambling; *luid earra*, is ragged, slovenly—whence the Scot. *hutherim*, slovenly. *Brockett's North Country Glos.* has *hutherikin* lad, a ragged youth, a sort of *hobbledehoy*. Bret., *hudur*, villain, sordide.

HUFF. A dry, scurfy, scaly incrustation of the skin. Isl., *yfa*, to irritate; Wel., *wf*, an expelling out. *Huffle*, to rumple.

HUFF, to scold, rate, bluster. Wel., *wft*, a scorning; Isl., *yfa*.

HUFF-CAP, **HUF-SNUF.** A swaggering blusterer.

To all Whip Johns and Whip Jackes, not forgetting the Cavaliero Pasquill, or the Cooke Ruffian, that drest a dish for Martin's diet. Marforms, and all Cutting *Hufsnufs*, Roisters, and the residew of light fingered youngers, which make euery word a blow and euery booke a bobb.—*Nashe's Plaine Percevall*.
HUGGY-ME-CLOSE. The merry thought of a fowl.

HULK, **HULKIN.** A lout, lubber, an overgrown fat fellow like a huge unwieldly tub. Norse, *holk*, a tub. N. Ang., *helk*. 'The *hulk*, Sir John.'—Shaks., 2 Hen. IV. To go *hulking* about; said of a lazy lout, loitering for a chance of pilfering. *Hulk*, a heavy fall.—Essex. To *hulk*, is to take the inwards out of a hare or rabbit. Sw., *urhülka*, to excavate; N. Ang., *howk*. Goth., *halks*, empty; Sp., *hueco*, hollow.

'I could *hulk* your grace, and hang you up cross leg'd
Like a hare at a poulter's.'—*B and Fl. Philaster*, v.

HULL. To throw, *hurl* (Mid. Ang., *holl*); of which it seems a cor. Said of a ship carried helplessly along by wind and waves.

'No, no,' said Mr. Peggotty. 'You doen't ought—a married man like you—or what's as good—to take and *hull* away a day's work.'—*David Copperfield*.
Dut., *hollen*, to run.

Much the case of people at the seaside, that see something come *hulling* towards them, a great way off at sea.—*L'Estrange's Æsop*.

HULLUP. To vomit.

HULVER, **HULVA.** Holly. Fris., *hulver*; A. S., *holegn*. N. Ang., *hollyn*; Dorset, *holm*. '*Hulwour tre*.'—*Pr. Pv.* Dut., *hulst*.

Chaucer has *hulfere*; *Cotgr.*, '*houx*, the hollie or *hulver* tree.'

'Save *hulver* and thorn, thereof flail to make.'—*Tusser*.

Huel-var, Bret., is the mistletoe.

HULVER-HEADED. Stupid, muddled, hard-sculled.

HUME. A hymn. In common use, say both Forby and Moor.

HUMMER. The well-pleased sound a horse emits when he hears or sees the bait of corn shaken in the sieve by his attendant. Also a falsehood.

HUMP. A contemptible quantity, mere pittance. Dut., *homp*, a lump, of which

HUNCH, **HULCHIN.** A thick slice or lump of food is a *var*.

Richardson has '*hunch* or *bunch*, a lump or bump occasioned by pressure.'

HUNCH. A lift or shove. 'Give me a *hunch*, Tom,' said a fat East Anglian dame to her grinning footman, after vainly endeavouring to climb unaided into her carriage.—*Forby*.

'Hunch, to give a thrust with the (*crook'd*) elbow.'—Bailey.

HUNCH-WEATHER. Cold weather, causing the limbs to contract. Dut., *huck*, to crouch.

All these appear to be cognates derivable from the roots already given under *huckle*.

HUNGER-POISONED. Famished, unhealthy for want of proper nutriment. In Suffolk applied to misers.

HUNKERS. Said of persons squatted down on their haunches, or hind quarters. 'To sit down on one's *hunkers*, is to sit with the hips hanging downwards.—*Jam. Sc. Dict.* Old High Ger., *hlanoha*, the flank.

HURRY. A small load of hay or corn.—Grose. A drawing or dragging.—Pegge. To lead or carry anything, N. Ang.

HURRY-CARRIERS, HARRY-CARRIERS The early name of the Yarmouth trolley carts. See description, page 40, and *Note, id.*

'The Sun was so in his mumps upon it, that it was almost noon before he could go to cart that day, and then with so ill a will he went, that he had thought to have toppled his burning car, or *Hurry-Curry*, into the sea (as *Phæton* did) to scorch it and dry it up.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff.*

Hurry, Sw. and Dan., *hurtig*, rapid, fleet. Junius explains *hurry*, violently dejectere, *raptim propellere*. It had a stronger meaning, remarks Wedgewood, than that in which it is now commonly used. 'The origin is a representation of the sound made by something rapidly whirled through the air. O. H. G., *hursc*, quick; *hurscan*, to hasten; *huri*, a cry to urge on horses.' O. Fr., *harry*, a carterly voice of exciting, *hay ree*. *Harry bourriquet*, rudely, confusedly braying out in a loud and harsh accent, such as the French millers use in the driving of their asses; *bourriquet*, a kind of tombrell; *harré*, *hurried*, turmoiled.—*Colgr. Arriero*, Sp., a driver of mules; *harrer*, quicker, an exclamation to a horse, appears in the Townly Mysteries. The term is now obsolete in Yarmouth, but might with great propriety be re-bestowed upon its rapid, rattling fish conveyances.

HUTCH. A chest or large coffer. Fr., *huche*; Dut., *hok*; Norse, *hokk*; A. S., *hwacca*; '*Hoche* or *whyche*.—*Pr. Pv.* Fr., *bahut*; Mid. High Ger., *behut* (used by Luther); *behüten*, to cover, keep.

A gret summe of money which was gadered for him in a *hucch* at Poules, was taken out.—*Capgrave.*

Heape up bothe golde and silver, safe in *hooches*.—*Gascoigne.*

'The eye of the master enricheth the *hutch*.'—*Tusser.*

An old usurer that hath not an heir, rakes up thirty or forty thousand pounds together in a *hutch*.—*Nashe's Christ's Tears.*

As the best pastures are hedged in, the best orchards walled about, the best metals *hutch'd* up.—*Id.*

HUTKIN. A case or sheath for a sore finger. Suff., *hatkin*.

ICE-BONE. Aitch-bone of beef, E. and N. Ang.; Dut., *ischbean*.

ICHON. Each one. '*Ichon* on em.'

IFE. The yew tree, Suf. Fr., *if*; Sw., *idgran*.

IMP. A shoot, a graft, used by Bp. Hall. Dan., *ympe*; Wel., *impiaw*; A. S., *impan*. *Impe* or *graffe*.—*Pr. Pv.*

Worthy Jonathan, which sprang from Saul, as some sweet *imp* grows out of a crabstick.—*Bp. Hall's Contemplations.*

God never did more for the natural olive than for that wild *imp* which he grafted in.—*Id.*

I'M SEWER. I'm sure. One of the many expletives common to all colloquialism. 'What's a clock?—'I don't know, I'm sewer.'

INDER. A great quantity. 'He's worth an *inder* of money.'—
'We av sitch an *inder* of poor.

Forby, Moor, and Grose derive from India. Quite as likely to be a cor. of 'no end of.'

INQUIRATION. Enquiry. 'Ha' yeow made *inquiry*.'

INWARDS-MAID. A farm-house maid, not employed in the dairy.

IRON-SIDED. Hardy, rough, fearless. Also unruly.

There's a man ashore there, *iron-true* to my little Emily; God bless her, and no wrong can touch my Emily while so be as that man lives.—*David Copperfield*.

IVVA. Ever. So nivva for never. A Norse hardening.

IZZARD. The last letter of the alphabet.

JACKS. The turnip fly. Fr., *jacquet*, parasite. *jecton*, swarm of bees

JADDER. Infirm. Gael., *lagaich*, infirm; *gadhar*, pain; Sw., *svagha*.

JAGG. An indefinite quantity, but less than a load of hay, or corn in the straw; called also a bargain. Teut., *sagen*; Dut., *zaeghen*, to cut, saw off. In Northampt. *jog*; Heref. and Chesh., *jag*.

'He has got his *jag*.' Not so much drink as he could have swallowed, but as much as he can fairly carry.—*Local Saw*. Gael., *daghdag*, a portion, a little.

JAHNEY. Journey. A day's work in agriculture. Scot., *journeye*, from the Fr *journée*; Lat., *diurnus*.

Used chiefly in ploughing. One *jahney* a day, is when the horses do their whole day's ploughing (about six hours) at once. Two *jahneys*, the old East Anglian practice, would be nine hours or more, with an interval. 'Journau in Champagne, as much land as a yoke of oxen can plough in one day.'—*Colgr.*

Journey, also formerly included the exploits of a day, as an engagement, foray, or of an enterprise, &c.; thus, 'The godes, that tham gan falle geten at that *jorne*'—*Roert de Brunne*. In a letter to William of Worcester, in the Paston Letters it is said of the Yorkist victory at St Albans, 1455, 'All the Lords that died at the *journey* are buried at St. Albans.' At the siege of Berwick by Ed. II, Capgrave writes, 'the Kyng lay stille at the sege; and happed for to say a word which was confusion of that *journey*.'

JAM. A vein or bed of marl or clay *jammed* between other strata.

JAMMOCK. To beat, squeeze, crush, or trample into a small mass.

Intens. of to *jam*; also, a soft, pulpy substance.

Applied to fish or ripe fruit squeezed by the pressure of others above.

JATTER. To split into shivers; to shake violently. Old Fr., *jecter*, *jatter*; It., *giattare*; Norse, *detta*, to shiver.

JERK, YERK. A smart blow. Wel., *terc*, a jerk or jolt.

Wel., *iARTH*, a rod, goad. 'To yerke or jerke.'—*Colgr.*

And in her hande, she had a knotted whippe,

At every *yerke*, she made Godfrey to skippe.—*Hawes' Pastime of Pleasure*.

Last that he never his young master beat,

But he must ask his mother to define,

How many *jerks* she would his breech should line.—*Bp. Hall's Satires*.

When children play with their meate, 'tis a sign their bellies are full, and it must be taken from them; but if they tread it vnder their feete; they ought to be *jerke'd*.—*Pap with a Hatchet*, 1589.

JEROBOAM. A capacious bowl or goblet, a *forum*. Isl., *jord*, earth.

JET. To strut, swagger, bustle about; obsolete. Fr., *jecter*.

More than to ride with pomp and pride,—Or for to *jet* in others debt.—*Tusser*.
And yet in towne, he *jelleth* every streete—*Gascogne*.

JET. A large ladle for raising or emptying water. Fr., *jettler*.

JETTY. Aught projecting, as into deep water, or from upper stories.

Fr., *jettée* a bearing out or leaning over; the bank of a ditch, or the earth cast out of it when made.—*Colgr.*

Jawed like a *jetty*;

To see how she is gumbed

A man would have pytty,

Fyngered and thumbed.—*Skelton.*

JEWS-EARS. *Auricula Judæ.* A beautiful bright red fungus resembling the human ear, found on the elder trunk, the tree on which Judas is said to have hung himself.

JIB. The under-lip. A whimpering child is said 'to hang his *jib*.'

O. Fr., *gibbe*, a hulch, anything that stands poking out.—*Colgr.*

JIBE. To fit, agree.—*Essex.* Common in U. S. See *Gibe*.

JIBBY, A. A frisky, gadding, flaunting wench. In Scot. a *jinker*.

Jibby horse, a showman's horse tricked out.

Gael., *gibeach*, neat, spruce; *gibeagach*, abounding with rags or bunches.

O. Fr., *gibbeuz*, hunched, (much swelling) embossed.—*Colgr.*

JIECH. A small quantity; a pinch of snuff; a chaw of tobacco, &c. In *Essex*, *chice*.

A. S., *cicel*, a morsel; O. Fr., *chiche*, niggard, pinching. It., *cica*, a trifle.

JIFFLE. Quick, bustling, unsettled movement. 'Don't *jiffle* about so,' said to a restless child whilst being dressed. To shuffle.—*Perthshire.* See *Giffle*.

JIG-BY-JOWL. A local cor. of cheek-by-jowl.

JIGGS. Dregs, sediment as of coffee, physic, &c. N. Ang., *laggs*.

Sw., *tjoek*, sediment, also *diger*, thick. Manx, *jiughey*, thickened. The Eng. *d* interchanges with the Norse *j*; see under *jot* and *jounce* a little later on; or the word may be a cor. of the A. S., *drigan*, to dry up.

JIGS. The carriages belonging to a Norfolk plough.

Gig, jeeg, Sc., to work so as to make a creaking noise; *jiggeting*, jolting. Fr., *Pat. de Champ. jiger*, to throw the legs about. Hence vulg. *gigues*, the legs.—*Wedgewood.* *Gigots*, Walloon, a horse's hind legs.

JILLY-HOOTER. An owl. Also called Madge and Billy-wix. A. S. *jil*.

N. Ang., *Jimny-Hullett*. *Hullott*, Walloon.

JIM. Suf., Nor., *jill*. A machine, with two wheels, axle, and pole, for carting timber underneath. On a *drag* it is laid *above*.

Is the der., hence derivable from the carriage being above its load, from It., Fr., Sp., *cime*, top? *Jill*, O. Fr. *jouëlle*, a yoke. Both are probably from the Gael., *giul-an*, to bear, carry; *iom-chair*, to carry, support.

JIMMERS. See *Gimmels*.

JINK. To sprain the loins or back of an animal. See *Chink*.

JIP. To cheat, impose, trick. See *Gip*.

JOAN'S SILVER PIN. A single article of finery, displayed amid dirt and sluttiness.

JOB. To strike with a pointed instrument. To peck with a strong sharp beak. Ger., *hieB*, a blow, stroke; Gael., *gob*, a bird's bill or beak. *Jobber-nowl*, a fool, simpleton.

'If peacock and turkey leave jobbing their *beak*'—*Tusser*.

Have with them for a Riddle or two, only to set their wits a nibbling, and their *Jobber-nowls* a working—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

As an ass with a gall'd back was feeding in a meadow, a raven plucked upon him and there sate *jobbing* of the sore.—*L'Estrange's Æsop*.

JOE-BEN. The great titmouse.—Suf.

JOGGING. A protuberance in sawn wood, where the saw was *joggled* out of line.

JOGGLE. To push, shake. Dimin. of *jog*. 'Haaow yeow dew joggle me,' L. Scot., *schoggle*; Ger., *schockeln*, to rock, toss. Wel., *gogi*.

JOLL. To job with the beak, as *rooks* for worms.

'Joll or heed.'—*Pr. Pv.*—A. S. *ceolas*; Gael., *giall*, the jaws, hence pig's *chaule*.

JOLLACKS. An irreverent appellation, bestowed on clergymen, says *Moor*. From the Gael. *iolach*, a shouting, a crying aloud.

JOLICK. All right. Not *jollick*, not on the square. Fr., *joliet*. Gael., *iollagach*, gay, merry.

JOSS. A command to a horse to sidle up to a block or gate, where the rider may mount. Jossen-blocks were formerly to be seen near the doors of most farm houses. Fr., *jouste*, near to, beside.

Chaucer makes the two scholars in the *Reve's Tale* call to their runaway horses—

'These sely clerkes rennen up and down,

With kepe, kepe, stand, stand, *jossa*, wardere.'

JOSS, JOSTLE. To make room by standing or sitting close.—*Forby*. Fr., *jouste*, near to.

JOT. Plump, downright. 'He came down *jot* upon his rump.' *Jot*, *jotter*, is to jolt roughly; to jog, nudge. *Jot-cart*, one with the body set flat on the axle, giving it a jolting movement. *Jottee*, a small conveyance; var. of *jolt*.

Isl., *delta*, to stumble; *dotten*, fallen. Fr., *jacter*, to tumble; It., *játo*, an abyss, gulf.

JOUNCE. To bounce, thump, and jolt, as a vehicle in deep ruts.

Huncy-Jouncy, in a clumsy, jumbling manner.

Dan., *dundse*, to thump; Sw., *dunsa*, to plump down; Fr., *jancer un cheval*, to stirre a horse in the stable till hee sweat withall, or (as our) to *jaunt*, (an old word)—*Colgr.* 'Jowncyng, or grete vngentylle mevyng.'—*Pr. Pv.* *Maux, jonse*, a jolt or wince: *jonseragh*, wild, untamely; said of a horse that winces. 'And now I bear a burden like an ass.

Spur-gall'd and tired by *jauncing* *Bolingbroke*.—*Rich. II.*, v. 5.

JOWER. To exhaust with fatigue; 'right on *jowered* out.'

'As from a day's labour or travel.'—*Forby*. O. Fr., *gourd*, stiff, benumbed.

JUB. A sluggish horse's up and down, heavy trot.

JUG. To squat and nestle close together, like partridges at night.

O. Fr., *jucher*, to roost or perch as pulleine do.—*Colgr.*

Should they have liv'd and *jugg'd* together to this day.—*Fairfax*.

JULK or YULK. To give a sound like liquor shaken in a cask; an onomatopœia. In Suffolk, also, a hard blow. 'Ta give em sich a *julk* ta kill'd em stone dead,' said of a child struck by a windmill sail. *Jaup*, to shake liquid.—N. Ang.

Gael., *glug*, noise of a shaken vessel of liquid not quite full. *Julk* is one of the very few East Anglian words, Sir Thomas Browne is found using. In a letter to his son Edward, he writes, 'There was a woeman or mayd in Suffolk, who had a *julking* and fluctuation in-her chest and somew hat upwardly, so that when she stood and stroked her chest it might be heard by the standers by.—*Works*, Vol. I, p. 273.

JUM. A sudden jolt or concussion; injury from a fall. 'As hoss fell upon em an'a got a sad *jum*.—*Moor*. Fris., *shumpeln*, to jolt.

JUMP-SHORT. Mutton from sheep drowned in the fen drains.

JUNCKER. A contrivance for drawing off superfluous water from a pond or moat. Dan., *gienkrav*, to reclaim.

JUNKETS. Dainties, delicacies. 'Rare deewins! nawn but *Junketten*.' Also pronounced *sunket* as in Scot.

It., *giuncata*; Old Fr., *joncade*, *Cotg.*, 'dainties of cream and sugar blended. In Devonshire restricted to its famous curds and clouted cream.

Men's cellars and garrets for meat they searched. If there were but the blood of anything spilt on the ground, like hungry dogs they would lick it up. Rats, mice, weasels, scorpions were no common men's *junkets*.—*Nashe's Christ's Tears over Jerusalem*.

They cannot eat of any dish; nothing will downe, unless it be now and then a plumb or some sweet *junket* to sweeten the mouth of their consciences.—*N. Rogers' Lost Groat*.

KA. Quoth. *Katha*, quoth he; *ka*, here, look here; *ka-inda*, look yonder; 'k' there now—'a what hae yeeow done?'—*Moor*.

KAIL. To fling stones awquardly. See *Cale*.

KEDGE. Brisk, active, hearty. 'How d' ye fare?'—'Thanky, kiender *hedgy*.'—'A fare kiender *kedge* still.' Scot., *hedgie*, applied to the old; Isl., *kátr*, glad, lusty; Sw., *kaxe*; Gael., *cridheach*; hearty. Used in New England. Ex., 'pretty *kedge*.'

Kygge, or joly, *kydge*.—*Pr. Pv* Mr. Way in his Notes compares it with the Ger., *keck*, lively, hardy, nimble, saucy. Isl., *kiaekr*.

KEEL or WHERRY. A flat-bottomed barge or sailing boat, largely used on the East Anglian rivers in transporting produce to and from the seaports. See page 165.

Isl., *kiol*; O. Fr., *quille*; A. S., *ceol*. So named from its keel or backbone.

Item j ship. Item j Pece with j *keil*.—*Inventory of Falstolf's Silver Plate*.

It pi to a *kele* for carryge hom of ye beddyng and ye leveryes from Styrbych teyer to Hunstanton, ijs vjd.—*L'Estrange's Household Accounts*.

KELL. The cawl of a slaughtered beast; the membranous skin which wraps over part of the loin. Isl., *skel*, rind, peel, shell. Also a kiln, a brick-kell, a malt-kell. Wel., *cyl*; Dan., *kölle*; Isl., *kylna*. *Kellen*, a batch of bricks.

'Take heed to the *kell*, Sing out as a bell.—*Tusser*.

KELTER. Condition, fettle. In good *kelter*, said of a farm. 'The mauther have slumped into the slush, and is in a nasty forlorn *kelter*.' Applied also to a plough said to *kelter* well or ill, as it works in the proper slope or curve. 'Ta oont *kilta*.'—*Suf*.

'If the organs of prayer be out of *kelter*, how can we pray, if we be not accincte (girt up)?'—*Barrow*.

Dan., *kille*, to gird, truss up for work. *Elwyn Gloss. of Americanisms* der. from Ger., *keller*, a press; out of *kelter*, out of order; or else from *culler*, the coulter of a plough. *Keller*, a cant term for money.—*N. Ang.*

KENCH. That part of a hay stack in cut. See *Canch*.

Sw., *kant*, border, edge, corner. 'Kank and bro.'—*R. de Brunne*.

KETT. Carrion, garbage. 'A *ketty* cur.' A nasty stinking fellow. *Suf*, *kit*; Su. Goth., *koett*; Isl., *kaet*, carrion.

KEYS. The spaces between the upright timbers of the hanging houses for smoking herrings, are called 'quarter keys.' See p. 301.

Horne Tooke derives key from A. S., *cægian*, to shut in, confine, which in the present instance expresses the purpose designed. Hence *quay*, defined by Speelman, *caia*, a space in the shore compacted by beams and planks, as it were by keys. The Wel. has *cae*; Bret., *kae*, enclosure. 'Key or *knytyngs* of ij wallys, or trees yn an vnstable grownde.'—*Pr. Pv*.

KIBBAGE. Small refuse and rubbish, riff-raff. Flem., *kibbeling*, refuse of fish.

Keppisch, worthless, is Rothwelsch or German-Jew argot.

KICHEL. A flat Christmas cake, triangular, with sugar and currants strewed over. A. S., *cicel*, a morsel, little mouthful.

Kichel is Saxon, a kind of a cake or God's *kichel*, given to children by their godfathers.—*Cocker*.

KICK. A novelty, dash; *kicky*, showy. In Lanc., the fashion, mode. 'Aw th' kick.' Isl., *skick*, mode, custom. Dan., *skik*, fashion; *skikke*, becoming. 'He's i' heigh *kick*.'—Craven. Devon, *kicking*, high-kicked, smart, shewy.

With eight score more galliard cross-points, and *kickshi-winshe*, t iddy ear-wig brains.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

KID. A small cask or keg for flour. A pannier. Gael., *cliahh*, a creel, pannier; *caiteag*, a basket. Also a flattish keg for sprats and herrings. Lat., *cadus*; Dut., *kit*, a wooden can. Also fag-gots, bavins, 'kyde, fassis.'—Pr. Pv. Wel., *cidysen*.

Kid, New Eng., a large box in which fish are flung as caught. *Kids*, the husks of beans or pease.—*Bachelor's Beds. Dial.* A. S., *cod*. Wel., *cyb*.

KIDDIER. A higgler who buys up fowls, eggs, poultry, &c., at farm-houses, to carry to market. A butcher and dealer in small animals, as lambs, pigs, calves, &c.

'A *kidder* is a badger, huckster, a carrier of goods on horseback.'—*Ray's Ess. and Suf. Words*. 'A seller of corn, victuals, &c.'—*Bailey*. In the North, a *Cadger*, applied also to those who convey fish from the coast to Newcastle market. As pedlar proceeds from the peds he carries, so probably does *kiddier* from his *kids*. Called also *kidgier* from his kegs; Isl., *kaggje*, a small keg; hence *cadger*.

KIDDLE. To embrace, caress, fondle; var. of *cuddle*. N. Ang., *huddle*. Sc., *kid*, to toy; *kiddy*, wanton; Sw., *kaet*, lewd. To rear young animals by hand. Flem., *kudde*, a brood.

KIENDA. Kind o'. A qualifying expression. '*Kienda* snaggy,' rather cross. 'She made game on it, *kind o*.' Fris., *kanda*; Dan., *kiende*, slightly, rather; *kiende for stort*, a trifle too large.

Kind of, or resemblance, used in the northern sense of the A. S., like; A. S., *cyn*, kin, kind; Isl., *kyn*; Gael., *cine*, race, family. '*Kynd*, natural; *kyndely*, naturally.'—Pr. of Consc. Common Americanisms are *kinder*, *kinder sorter*.

'You han't no call to be afeerd of me; but I'm *kiender* muddled; I don't feel to fare no matters.'—*David Copperfield*.

KILLER OR KELLER. A shallow tub or cooler, a wash killer, milk killer. A. S., *cælan*, to cool, chill; Sw., *kyla*. Ir., *cilier*.

KILTERS. Tools, instruments, component parts.—See *Kelter*. Also to dawdle. Ir., *ceilidh*, a lounge. Sw., *kel*, to cocker up.

KINDIFUL. Used in the senses of things of every manner or kind. 'Neither chair nor table, nor bed, nor no *kindiful* thing.'

KINER. A flannel wrap used by nurses for infants. Lat., *cingo*. Gael., *ceangal*; Wel., *cin*, a wrap, ligament.

KING HARRY REDCAP. The Goldfinch. **KING HARRY BLACKCAP.** The Blackcap.

KINK. A rabble, entanglement of a skein. Yarn *kinks* in winding. Children are said to *kink* their breath in violent crying, i.e., have a stoppage of it. Swed., *kikna*. Also used in the contrary sense of recovery. A patient, very ill, 'will *kink* up again,' as will a nearly moribund fire.

Lanc., *kench*, a twist; Old Norse, *kringia*, to twist; Dut., *krinkel*, to wrinkle; *kink*, a twist in a cable. In the U. S., odd people are said to have a *kink*. A *kink* in one's neck is a common phrase there. So is *kink*, a crotchet; *kinky*, queer. The N. Ang. has *kink*, convulsed breathing from crying or laughter, from A. S., *cincgung*, great laughter.

KINSMAN. Specially applied to cousins in Norfolk, and nephews in Suffolk. See under *nephew*.

KIPLIN. The palate, gullet, sounds, and other perishable parts of the codfish, cut away and cured separate from the body. Flem. and Dut., *kibbeling*, cod sounds and clippings; *kibbelen*, to nibble.

Dried cod are called in Norway *klippfisk*, from *klippe*, to split open. Of this latter *kiplin* seems a metathesis. *Kibblings*, bait of small pieces of fish used on the Newfoundland Bank—*Bartlett's Americanisms*. N. Ang., *gubbins*.

KISKY. Dry, thirsty, from fever or dust, Essex; a smile possibly borrowed from the dried *kisks* or kecksies of the hedges, or from the Lat., *hisco*, to gape;—*hask*, parched; *hisk*, to breathe with difficulty; *kizzen*, to parch, dry up, N. Ang. Isl., *quec* touchwood. Bret., *hesk*, said of a dried up spring; breast of milk, &c. See *Cambuck*.

KISS-ME-AT-THE-GARDEN-GATE. The pansy.

KIT. A rush basket for herrings or sprats. Gael., *caiteach*, 'basket, rush mat.

'The fish is brought ashore again to the cooper's offices, boiled, pickled, and kitted.'—*Pennant*,—*the Salmon*.

KIT-CARL. Careless.—*Moor*.

KITT-CAT-ROLL. A bellied roller for land, the horse moving in the furrow, the roller acting on the ridges. Isl., *quidr*, the womb; Ger., *dick*, swollen, corpulent. *Kite*, the belly; *pod-kite*, pot-bellied.—N. Ang. Su. Goth., *gwed*.

KITTLE, KITTLISH. Ticklish. Isl., *kitla*; A. S., *kittelan*, to tickle; Fr., *chatouiller*, from *catullire*.

KITTLE-REAP. Old or unskilled hands engaged at harvest.

Kit, brood, flock; Dut., *kudde*; Swiss, *kütt*, crew, assemblage.—*Wedgewood*; or it may be the Sc. sense of *kittle*, awkward, untrustworthy.

KITTY-WITCH. A small cancer on the coast, with fringed claws. A small gull, the *kitty-wake* of Pennant. A woman grotesquely dressed; called also a *kitch-witch*. 'Years ago, troops of women, with men's shirts over their dress, and their faces smeared with blood, perambulated Yarmouth at certain seasons, levying contributions.—*Forby*. *Kitoir*, Walloon, is contorted, crooked, said of the legs, gait, &c. *Kittie*, Sc., *cuttie*, wanton. See *kiddle* above.

KIVER. Cover, lid; an old local form. *Chaucer* has *kevere*.

'My maister's helmet in the *kever*.'—*Inventory of Fastolfe*, 1460.

KNAB. To gnaw, nibble. Dut. and Ger., *knappen*. See *nabble*.

I'll e'en back to my cottage and my mouldy cheese again, for I had much rather lie *knabbing* of crusts, without either fear or danger in my own hole.—*L'Estrange's Æsop*.

An ass was wishing in a hard winter for a little warm weather, and a mouthful of fresh grass to *knab* upon.—*Id.*

KNACKER. 'Cart collar and harness maker.'—*Ray.* Sw., *knacka*, to knock gently. *Knacker's-brandy*, a sound strappado.

From the sound of their tools. O. Fr., *naquer*, to gnaw with a harsh sound.

'One part for ploughwright, cartwright, *knacker*, and smith.'—*Tusser.*

KNACKS. Knick-knacks, toys, pretty trifles, playthings. Dut., *knappe*, fine, pretty; *knap*, nimbly, handsomely.

Whose states when I looke vpon, I am ready to crie at as a countrey man of mine did, when trauersing London streets, he spide a lacke an apes, in a gale cote, sit mooing on a marchant's bulke: 'Good Lord! what *knacks* are made for money, now adaies?—*Nashe's Plain Percevall.*

Nique, a nicke, clicke, snap with the teeth or fingers, a trifle; *nifle*, bable, matter of small value.—*Cotgr.* Sw., *nyck*, a whim.

KNAP. A thump, slight knock. A rap on the knuckles. Gael, *cnap*.

'*Knap* boy on the thumbs, And save him his crumbs.'—*Tusser.*

KNAP-KNEES. Knock-knees.

KNOBBLE TREE. The head. Pl. Dut., *knobbe*, anything thick and round.

KNOCK. To stir or to work briskly. 'Knock away, my lads.'

'Let the music *knock* it.'—*Shaks. Hen. VIII.* Dan., *knubbe*, to bang, thrash.

Kindred phrase, used by a Yankee in London—'I have been smashing round considerable to-day.'—*Elwyn.*

KNOCK-SALT. A fool.

KNOP. To bud. Ger., *knospe*. Dan., *knoop*. Flem., *knoppen*.

'*Knoppe* or bud of a tre.'—*Pr. Pv.*

KNOPPET. A little clod or lump of anything. Isl., *gnupr*.

'*Knoppy-road*,' as the man said when he stumbled over a cow.—*Anderson's Cumb. Dialect.*

KNOW. Knowledge. Poor fellow, he has but little *know*. A *know-nothing*, utterly ignorant, a wretched ignoramus.

KNUB. A knob. *Knubble*, a small knob. *Knubble*, to handle clumsily. See *nub*.

LADLE. To dawdle. Fr., '*lasdaller*, a lazie draw-latch.'—*Cotgr.*

LAD'S-LOVE. The herb southern-wood. *Artemisia atrotanum*.

LADY'S SMOCK. The cuckoo flower. Canterbury bell.

LAGARAG. A lazy bones. In Suff. and Sc., *lagabag*, the hindmost of a drove. Gael., *lag*, feeble; Wel., *llag*, sluggish; Bret., *Lezirek*, idle, nonchalant. Greek, *lagaros*, slack. Irish, *lad-harnach*, an idler who sits much at the fire.

LAID. Dead, killed, Suff. Sw., *lugn*. Slightly frozen, Norfolk.

LAID-UP-HER-LATTER. Said of the last laid egg of poultry.

'She's *laid up her latter* and she'll sune set.'

'*Laster* or *lawter*, thirteen eggs to set a hen.'—*Grose.* Sc. *lachter*; Som., *laite*; Isl., *leggia*, to lay; Ger., *leghtyd*, time of laying. Cumb., *laghter*; Craven, *lafter*, a brood of chickens.

LAL. A dawdled, cosetted child. Its such a *lal*, or 'tis a poor *lallen* thing.' Also to lounge, loiter. Dut., *lollen*, to coddle. Sw., *lolla*, fool, Sc., *lall*, useless, inactive person.

LALDRUM. An egregious simpleton; a fool and a half.

Dut. *lellen*, to tattle, also rif-rafs; Dan., *lalle*, to prattle; Isl., *loll*, sloth; Sw., *lohli*, a booby; *lallande*, stammering. Wel., *llol*, idle babble.

LAM. To catch eels. *Lamper-eel*, the lamprey.

Low Lat., *lam-petra*, lick-stone, this fish clinging to stones with its mouth; Sp., *lambriga*, a worm; Bret., *lampr*, slippery, shining.—*Diez*.

LAM, LANNA, LANNER. To beat unmercifully; Fr., *laniere*, a thong.

Isl., *lemja*, *lamda*, to thrash; *klömm*, a cudgel; Dan., *lamme*, to paralyse. *Lamb-pie*, a drubbing. Bret., *lemm*, sharp, trenchant.

Common in Lanc., Yorks., and in the U. S., where to *lam*, is 'to give him Jessie.' 'I'd a *lammed* him worse than the devil beating tan bark, I know.'—*Sam Slick*.

In Norfolk the lash of the whip is called the *lanner* or *lanyer*.

LAMMOCK. To lounge with excessive laziness. *Lummoz*, a fat, stupid person. 'Look o' yin great *lummoz*, lazing and lolloping about.'

Ock is an intensive termination from Su. Goth. *oka*, to augment. *Lammock* would seem to be an intens. of the Dan., *lömmel*, a lubber, lout; or rather the Sw., *lam*; Ger., *lahm*, lame, remiss, wanting in elasticity; the Dorset *lam-mocken*, loose-limbed.

In Shrops. dial., *slammockin*, unwieldy, clumsy; Isl., *slyma*, to cling idly; Su. Goth., *slcm*, turpis.—*Hartshorne's Salopia Antiqua*. The Gael. has *slamanach*, flabby. *Lummoz* is common in the U. S. *Lammock* in E. Ang. is also a large quantity, a dollop; intens. of the Devon, *lamming*, huge, great. *Lommaking* is applied to love-making in Heref. dial.

LAND-WHIN. The rest harrow, *ononis spinosa*, Lin.

LANGLE. To saunter slowly. 'L. Sc., a tether. Sui. Goth., *lanya*, retardare.'—*Jam*.

LAP. Small beer.

LAP-SIDED. An excess of proportion on one side. Var. of *lob*.

LARGESS. A gift in harvest to the reapers.

'Usually of a shilling,' says Moor. For this the reapers will ask you if you 'chuse to have it haltered?' If answered yes, they assemble in a ring, holding each others hands, and inclining their heads to the centre. One of them detached a few yards apart, calls loudly thrice, 'Holla Lar!—Holla Lar!—Holla Lar!—j e e s.' Those in the ring lengthen out o-o-o-o with a low sonorous note and inclined heads, and then throwing the head up, vociferate a-a-a-h! This, thrice repeated for a shilling, is the established exchange in Suffolk. 'There are few rural sounds,' adds Major Moor, 'more poetical, more pleasing, or more affecting.'

Give gloves to thy reapers. A largess to cry.—*Tusser*.

Fr., '*Largesse*, bounty, handfuls of money cast among the people.'—*Colgr*.

LARRUP. To beat. An East Anglicism. Very common in the U. S.

'May not a man *larrup* his own nigger.' Somerset, *lirrop*; Dut., *larp*, a lash; Span., *lariata*, a rope made of thongs of raw hide.

Just come on an I'll *larrup* you till your mammy won't know you from a pile of sausage meat.'—*Southern Fun*, p. 34.

LASHY. Soft, watery. Applied to pasture of wet land. Also to a watery flavour in fruit. Fr., *lasche*, flabby, weak; Bret., *laosk*; Gael., *leasg*; Wel., *llesg*; Sw., *lossa*, languid. *Lache*, a bog, mud-hole, N. Ang.

Young clover, or wet pasture, is said to be 'tew lash' for cattle. Autumn grass is said to be *lashy* for horses, i.e., relaxing. In the North, *lask* is purging; and *lasche*, cold and moist; *lash-egg*, one without a full-formed shell. Sw., *laska*, to refresh, quench; (hence perhaps our *lushy*.) Dan., *lös*, lax.

The aer nebulous, grosse, and full of harres; the water, putrid and muddy, yea, full of loathesome vermyne; the earth, spaing, vafast, and boggie; the fire noysome, turfe and *lassocks*—such are the inconveniences of the drownings. —*A Discourse concerning the Fennes*, 1629.

Lasche or to fresche and vnsavery, vapidus. *Lusch* or slak.—*Pr. Pv.*

How *lush* and lusty the grass looks.—*Tempest*, ii., 1.

LAST OF HERRINGS. Nominally ten thousand fish; but being counted in long hundreds of 132 (see page 300) amount actually to 13,200.

Dan and Sw., *last*, a cargo, bulk, lading; Ger., *last*, freight, load, tonnage; Fris., *hlest*; Isl., *hlass*.—Dut., *last*, a load; *last* of wheat, 108 bushels; *last* of herrings, 14 barrels; *last* of tar, 12 barrels; a *last* of ship's stowage, 4000 pounds weight, and a tun at 200 pounds—*Sewel's Dut. Dict.*, 1708.

It., *lasto*; Fr., *laste*, *lest*, a ship's burden; O. H. Ger. *hlasi*; O. Fris., *hlest*; Norse, *lest*; A. S., *last* (Eng., *last*, boat load); Fr., *balast*; Dut., Ger., and Eng., *ballast* is a compound of *last* and *bal*. Ir., *beal*, sand; (*garbheal*) gravel, *Diez*. Cel. Bret., *bili*, callou rond, plat et poli que la mer pousse sur quelques rivages.—*Gonidec's Dict. Celto Breton*.

A. S., *hlæst*, a load; *plæstan*, to freight. Whence, *lastage*, a toll on ships of burthen and ballast. By 31, Ed. I., a *last* of herrings was to contain 10,000, at six score to the hundred. A *last* of wool, 12 sacks of two weights of wool, a weight to be 14 stones. '*Leate*, nowmbyr as beryngys, and other lyke—*legio*.'—*Pr. Pv.*

A *last* of white herrings is 12 barrels; of red, 20 cades or thousands; and of pilchards, 10,000; of corn, 10 quarters, and in some parts of England, 21 quarters; of wool, 12 sacks; of leather, 20 dickers, or ten score; of hides or skins, 12 dozen; of pitch, tar, or ashes, 14 barrels; of gunpowder, 24 firkins, weighing a hundred pounds each.—*Tomlins' Law Dict.*, 1835.

Item pd to Shabyngton of Lyn, for a *last* of barrels to tun bere in, that is to sey a disen barreills, xjs.—*L'Estrange Accounts*, 1530.

LATCH. I.—To catch what falls. Also to alight. A cat is said proverbially 'to allus *latch* on her legs. II.—The falling catch of a door or gate. A *latch*-pan is a dripping-pan.

Gael., *glac*, to catch, receive. A. S., *laccan*. '*Latchyd*, or caught.'—*Pr. Pv.* *Latch* is Gypsy dial. for to light upon, to find.

A flight of little angels that did wait

Upon their glittering wings to *latch* him straight,

And longed on their backs to feel his glorious weight.

—*Giles Fletcher's Christ's Triumph*.

Some are yet worse, and will sit at table and heare godly ministers and others depraved by vile tongues, and scarce give them their breath to *latch* the blow, lest themselves should bee thought too forward.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

LATCH-ON. To put more water on the mash when the first wort has run off. Craven, *leck-on*; *leck-off*, is to draw off; Dut., *lekken*.

The Bret. has *lec' hid*, sediment of water or other liquid. See *leech*.

LAUNCH. A long stride. 'That long-legg'd fellow comes launching along.' In the North, *lainch*; Fr., *se lancer*.—*Cotgr.* Gael., *glamhaich*, wide-gapped. *Lawnche* or skyppe.—*Pr. Pv.* It., *lanciarsi*, to rush upon. *Lans*, to spring forward, Sc.

LAY. A large pond. Also to intend. 'I *lay* to plough to-morrow.' To profit. 'What sort of a *lay* did you make of that there horse?'

LAYER. Soil, manure, &c., brought on the land, Essex.

Basque, *laya*, a spade; Sp., *laya*, a pronged digging fork. Prov. Dan., *lei*, fallow; A. S., *leah*, untilld land; Dut., *laag*, a stratum; Manx., *laare*, a floor. *Layer* seems to be used in a similar sense to our *lay*, a bed of mortar.

LAYER-OF-WIND. A dead calm; when mills will not grind.

LAYER-OVER. A gentle term for an instrument of punishment.

Lay-over for *medlars*, a reproving reply to check curiosity.

LEA, or **LA-A**. In Norfolk forty threads of hemp-yarn.

Wel., *lian*, a web of linen, from root *li*. The A. S. has *læx*, a bush of hair. *Lea*, seventh part of a skein or hank of worsted, containing 80 threads, N. Ang. 'At Kidderminster, every such *lea* to contain 200 threads, reeled on a reel four yards about.'—*Bailey's Dict.*

LEASTY. Dull, dark, dirty weather, cor. of *lasy* above. Compare O. Fr., *lascheté*. *Laisti*, Ir., is heavy, stupid.

LECK. To pour. *Lecking-time*, rainy weather. See *Leech*.

LEDGER. The thatcher's tool for driving or cleaning reed.

Ledgers, Dorset, the rods fastened down by spars on the thatch of a rick. A. S., *leger*, a lying down. '*Legge ouer twarte byndyng, ligatorium.*'—*Pr. Pv.*

LEECH or LETCH. A wooden vessel, pierced with holes for filtering lye through wood ashes. Dut., *lekken*, to leak, to draw off, or it may be lye-latch. Ger., *ablassen*, to let off; Swed., *laka*, to distill. See LATCH.

Leck, to leak, Teesdale. *Leck-on*, to mash in brewing.—*Craven*. *Lecks*, droppings. '*Lecking t' floor*,' sprinkling it, Leeds.

LEP, LEPE. A large, deep basket. A. S., *lep*. Isl., *laupur*.

Leap, Yorks., a large osier basket borne between two men to carry corn to be winnowed, called a *wheat-leap*. A seed leap or seed lip.—*Wilts*. A leap, a wheel to catch fish, Lanc. An osier basket born between two men for carrying chaff out of a barn, called in Northampts. and Bucks, a *bear-leap*. A *leap* or *lip*, half a bushel, Sussex. A seed leap or *lib*, a basket to carry corn on the arm to sow, Essex.—*Bp. Kennett's Gloss. Coll., Lands, M.S.* *Lep*, a bundle of straw, Cumb. *Leep* or *baskett*.—*Pr. Pv.*

Lep or *lepe*, a large, deep basket, and *seed lep*, a basket for the use of the sower, or for carrying chaff to feed horses.—*Forby*.

LESTLY, LISTLY. Hearing freely. 'I hard 'em as *lestly* as I hare yeow speak.' Ger., *los*, free; Old Fr., *liisé*, glib, pat.

Leise, Ger., is low, softly; Dut., *luysteren*, to whisper.

LEWCOME, LUCAM. A window in the roof of a house. Fr., *lucarne*.

'About eight o'clock an *ignis fulmineus*, or fire-ball, hit against the little wooden pinnacle of the high *leucome* window of my house.'—*Sir T. Browne*, vol. iv., 353. *LOUKE*, a window-lattice, Suf. Ir., *luacharn*; Wel., *lygorn*, a dormer-window. *Lucarne*, is also Fr. argot, for a bonnet.

LEWER. A handspike, *lever*. Called also a *lower*.

LIFT. A rough hurdle-gate, not hung on hinges, but raised to pass through. Common in New England. In Suffolk a *lift* is a gate not hinged, but with projecting bars let into mortice holes in the posts, in and out of which they must be *lifted*.

LIG. Lift, lug, pull. 'A good tidy *lig*' of water, raised from a well. Dut., *ligten*, to uplift, heave; Pl. D., *lichten*.

The Northern provincial sense of *lig* is to lie, lay down; Fris., *liga*; A. S., *ligan*; Isl., *liggia*. *Liggers*, Cumb., growing wood notched and laid along a hedge. Dorset, *ledgers*.

LIGGER. I.—A rude footbridge; a plank thrown across a ditch.

Fris., a *legger*; A. S., *liggan*, to lie down. II.—A local trimmer for pike fishing, used on the Broad.

'It is formed of flag or rushes over a foot long, lightly rolled up and tied the thickness of a man's arm. To the centre a stout cord is fastened, 8 to 15 feet long. Most of this is wound round and secured from unwinding by inserting the end among the flags. The baited hook hangs down from one end of the ligger; when a pike snaps the bait, the jerk sets free the cord to unwind from the flags. The ligger now lies flat on the water, instead of endwise, indicating the capture of the fish.'

LIGGLE. To lumber about with something too heavy to carry with ease—as a child *liggles* a puppy. Dimin. of *lig*.

LIKE. The A. S. *lie*, used as a similitude after nouns and adjectives,—in a passion like, angry like. *Like of*, to approve.

LIMB, LIMM. Expressing strong propensity. 'I am a *limm* for roast beef.' 'She is sich a *limm* for gin!' A. S., *lim*.

N. Ang., *limmer*, a female of loose manners. *Liminish*, inclined to mischief, Cumb. Fr., *limer*, to scrape, lick, look askew.—*Cotgr.* Isl., *lim*, glue; Dut., *leem*, tenacious, sticky.

LIMPSY. Flaccid, *limp*.—*Limmock*, intens. of the latter. Wel., *libin*. 'Limsy, weak, flexible, New England.'—*Webster.* Isl., *limpiasz*, to become slack. *Lenzare*, Ital-Fourbesque argot.

'When the flesh wants firmness of tone or feeling from feverish symptoms, a person is said, in Norfolk, to feel *limick*.'—*Wright's Prov. Dict.*

LIN. To cease, desist, stop. Isl., *lina*; Dan., *linde*, to loosen, slacken; A. S., *be-linnan*.

Even as the ivy creeps out of the earth upon the silly stocke of the tree, but never *lins* till it have over-topped it, and suckt out the sap and so destroyed it.—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

Oh! you would never *lin* with your owne soules till you had cast it out.—*Id.*

LINE. To beat.—from the weapon,—a rope's end. Also a place to lie down. *Lining*, coarse yarn put across fields to prevent birds picking up the seed.

LINTS. A term applied by fishermen to old nets. A. S., *linet*, Wel. and Ir., *lin*, flax, hemp, a net. Also a slang term for a halter.

LITHE. To soften, alleviate, render tractable, incline. A. S., *ge-lithian*.

And if ge wille lithe, I salle telle it you.—*R. D. Brunne.*

If they knew whom to trust for amends, or could believe that hundred fold requitall for God and his Gospel, which is promised to all that lose anything for Him; Oh! it would *lithe* their hearts exceedingly to suffer anything for Him!—*D. Rogers' Naaman*, p. 185.

Thou canst remove that utter unwillingnesse and uncouthnesse of the soule to this work, and cause *lythenesse* and complying therewith.—*Id.*

LITTLE-SILVER. A low price. 'The stover in my low meadows have been so nationly damnified by this slattering weather (said an old farmer), that 't won't be worth but *little-silver*.'—*Forby.*

See also under *Silver*.

LITTLE-STANDS. A shady lane.

LOAMY. Damp. *Loomy*, rancid and mouldy, applied to meat.

In other dialects as N. and Mid. Ang., *oamy*, is applied to land as being mellow; Sc., *oam*, steam, vapour.—*Jam.* A. S., *tam*, mud.

It may be Celtic; the Manx, *loauey*; Gael., *lobhta*, putrid; Wel., *ul*, damp, or from the Old Belg. *lome*, tardus, piger; *loomy*, Sc., covered with mist.

LOB. A lout; a tall ungainly lad. Also a *lobcock*, *lubbock*, *lubber*.

Lob, v. to kick. *Lob's pound*, the bridewell, E. and N. Ang.

Wel., *lob*, a heavy lump, a dull fellow; *labi*, a looby; Gael., *leobhair*, a lubber; Dut., *lobbes* and *laboor*. Isl., *labbaz*, to loiter lazily; Wall., *loubreere*, vagabondage.—*Wedgewood.* Common in Lanc. From this and the following cor. the nautical variations, **LUBBER** and **LUBBERLY**. *Lob*, to run heavily, Cumb.

But as the drone the honey hive doth rob,

With worthy books so deals this idle *lob*.—*Gascoigne.*

With the draft of the carterly *Hob-lobs* thereabouts.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*. And seeing a stranger in the church put on his hat in sermon time, he openly then called him sawcy, unmannerly clowne, and bid the churchwardens take notice of him, and the next Lord's day took occasion in his sermon again to speak of him, being then absent, and to call him *lobb*, sawcy goose, *ideot*, a wigeon, cuckoe.—*White's Century of Scandalous Priests*, 1643. (*Kettleburrugh, Suffolk*.)

The Dominican Friars were the next he contested with, whose vitiousness lay pat enough for his hand, but such foul *lubbers* fell heavy on all which found fault with them.—*Fuller's Worthies*.—*Norfolk*.

LOBLOLLY. Any odd mixture of spoon meat; a slabby mixture.

Dut., *slobberen*, to slop up liquids; Wel. *llabio*.

'*Loblolly*, a slovenly out of the way pottage, whole grists of oatmeal boiled till they burst and then buttered.'—*Bailey's Dict.*

LOBSTER LOP-START. I.—The smallest of the weasel tribe, the stoat or mouse-hunt. II.—A young sole. Gael., *leobag*, a small sole, a flounder; Ir., *leabog-chearr*, a sole; Manx, *liehbage*, a flat fish.

A Middlesex man would probably be much surprised to hear a Norfolk farmer talk of the havoc made among game and poultry by *lobsters*, and on the matter being explained would doubtless think *lobster* a mighty absurd appellation for the common stoat. But in Katterfelto's phrase there is reason for everything if people only knew it. The same animal in Yorkshire is called a *clubster* or *clubstart*, i. e., *clubtail*. The Norfolk and Yorkshire terms are evidently allied in origin, and both express the idea meant to be conveyed, viz., an animal with a thick tuft on its tail, which is a true description as far as it goes.—*Garnet's Philological Essays*.

Sw., *löpa*, to leap, run; Sw. and Dan., *stjert*, a tail. The Dan. has also *löp*, a pendulous, fleshy part; Wel., *llob*, a lump.

LOCK-SPIT. A spade-cut marking out the direction of a fence.

A. S., *loc*, enclosure; *spæd*, spade.

Sets out the circuit with a plough, which we call *lock-spitting*.—*Ogilby's Virgil*, 1688, p. 313.

LODE. An artificial watercourse made in the fens to aid the drainage. A. S., *lōdan*, to draw water; Irish, *lod*; Gael., *lad*, a water-course.

LOGGER. A loose irregular action of a wheel on its axle.

Dut., *log*, unwieldly; Dan., *logre*, to wag the tail; 'O. Fr., *locher*, to shog, wag, make a noise like aught that is loose.—*Cotgr.*

LOITER-PIN. A practice of ploughmen of halting at the ridge ends for gossip.

LOKE. A blind alley, shaded lane, narrow pass, a private road closed with gates, or through which there is no thoroughfare.

Loke, past part. of *locked*. Also a door hatch. A. S., *locen*, an enclosure, boundary; Isl., *loka*, to shut.

Lonk, a dingle which is not very steep, a hollow. *Lagger*, a broad green lane not used as a road. Heref. dial. *Link*, Sussex, a green or wooded bank.

LOLLOP. To lounge. Isl., *loll*, sloth. *Loll-poop*, a lounge.

LONDES. Desert strips of land. Fr., *Landes*, plains, heaths.

Bret., *lann*, a thorny bush; Fr., *brandes*, heaths *Lann* is pure Celtic, vide *Diez* and *Zeuss*.

LONDS. I.—Old sub-divisions of uninclosed lands or fields. A. S., *lond*. II.—To clog with mire. '*Londed* up to the knees.'

LONG. Great. Also tough to the palate. *Short* is its opposite, easy to masticate, friable, ex. the Sc., *short bread*. Also to reach, toss.

LONG-LADY. A farthing candle.

LOOK AT THE NOSE. To seem out of temper, to frown, Essex.

LOPE. To take long strides. L. Sc., *loap*; Isl., *hlaupa*; Dan., *løbe*; Dut., *loopen*, to run. Common, says Bartlett, in the Western States for *gallop*. *Lope-staff*, a leaping-pole. *Lope-way* a foot and bridle path. *Lowpynge* or *skyppynge*.—*Pr. Pv.*

Such as in Fens and Marsh-Lands us'd to trade,
The doubtful fords and passages to try,
With stilts and *lope-staves* that do aptliest wade.

—*Drayton's Barons' Wars*, I, 43.

LOPPER. To turn sour and coagulate. Isl., *hlaup*, curdled milk.

LORDS AND LADIES. The early species of the *Arum Maculatum*.

LOVES. The wood splines in a ventilating loft, across which the steeped and salted herrings are hung to smoke and dry them.— See p. 301. Dan. *lufte*, to air; Ger., *luften*, to lift, raise, so as to expose to air.

LOVIER. A lover. A vulgarism but no corruption. A. S., *lyflan*.

LOW. A loch left by the tide in hollows of the shore. Sc., *lowe*.

LUBBER AND LURBERLY. See *Lob* and *loblolly*.

LUCKS. Small portions of wool twisted on the fingers of a spinner at the wheel or distaff. A. S., *alucan*, to pull about.

Leawks, tufts of barren, dry grass, locks of hair, Lanc. *Locks*, clotted wisps of hay. An ostler is told to give the horse 'just a lock of hay,' Northampts; an armful of hay, Dorset. *Lok* of hey, *Lok* of wulle, *Floccus*.—*Pr. Pv.* *Lucks* in the E. Ang. sense is common in New England. Isl. *lokr*, a tress; Fr., *loque*, shred, tatter. Sc. *lochter*, and *lucht*; Su-Goth., *lugg*.

LUFF. To bring a vessel close to the wind. Fris. and Dut., *loeven*.

LUM. The handle of an oar. Isl., *hlumm*. To *lum* the oars; to let the handles down into the boat without unshipping them.

Ir., *leamh*, an oar, a rower.

LUMP. To drub with heavy blows. Dan., *lumpe*, to treat scurvily.

LUNT. Short, crusty in speech or manner. Ger., *lumpicht*, stingy; Dan., *lune*, mood, caprice.

LURDAN. A drone, sluggard.

'*Lourdant*, a dullard, grotnoll, jobernoll, lowte, lob, luske, clusterfist, churl,' &c.—*Cotgr.* Old It., *lordo*. Hence N. Ang. *lurdy*, lazy, dirty. Fr., *lourd*, (Eng. *lout*.)

I say lieutenaut of the Toure
Lodge hym in Lytell Ease,

Make this *lurdeyne* for to loure;
Fede hym with beanes and pease!

—*Skelton*.

LURRIED. Daubed as by rolling in mire. 'His clothes were *lurried* all over.' Gael. and Ir., *luiriste*, slovenly, untidy. See *Slar*.

N. Ang., *lair*, mire, dirt; *laired*, stuck in the mire, from Isl., *leir*; Dan., *leer*, clay.

LUSK. To lounge, dawdle. *Luskish*, lazy; Prov. Ger., *luschen*, to lounge; Dan., *luske*, to skulk; Isl., *loskr*, idle.

Sibright that schrew as a *lordan* gan *lusk*,

A *suynhird* smote he to dede under a thorn busk.—*R. de Brunne*.

Such an old custome of formality in Religion, ease, sloath, restinesse and *luskishnesse* of spirit.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

LUST. To incline. 'This wall *lust* o' one side,'—'the ship *lusts*.'

A stack out of the perpendicular is said 'ta *lust* lamentably.'

Wel., *ystlysu*, to tend to one side, go sideways; Sc., *leist*, to incline.

LUTHA. Leather. According to Moor, a binding formula in school boy bargains is

'Wha's yar shews made on? *Lutha*,

Bahn, bahn for ivva, nivver on change no more!'

MAAMBLE. Soil is said to, when adhering to the spade or to the dabs in seed dibbling, causing irregular holes. *Malmy*, sticky, adhesive, soft. *Maul*, clay or marl adhering to the spade. *Mamble* implies also to eat with disrelish, trifle with food.

Prov-Ger., *malmen*, to rub, grind to powder; Wel., *mall*, sodden, soft, crumbling; Goth., *malujan*; Isl., *mölra*, to break small. N. Ang., *maumy*, from Su. Goth. *mogna*, to mellow, says Brockett; Cumb., *moam*, mellow; It., *melma*, mud, from O. H. G. *melm*, dust. Manx, *mhalmey* mellow; *mhalmeyder*, a crumbler. See under *mulder*, &c.

MAIN. Under-roasted meat is said to be 'i' the *main*.' Home-done is sufficiently roasted.

'May imply, as Forby suggests, the thickest, most substantial part, and the longest in roasting, or be the Wel., *main*, slight; *mainly*, meanly, N. Ang.

MAKE. 'To make count,' to intend, reckon on—'to make a hand on,' to waste, destroy, ex., 'that dog is mad, I must make a hand on him.'—'to make on,' to caress, make much of—'to make a noise,' to scold, rate soundly—'to make ready,' to dress provisions—'to make bold,' to presume—'to make a die on't,' to die after a long sickness or decline.—*Forby*.

MAKE. A long handled crook, used chiefly for gathering pease.

'A *meak* for the pease and to swinge up the brake.'—*Tusser*.

A *mean* or *meak*, a pease-hook, Essex.—*Ray*. Bailey also has it.

Maké Walloon, is to strike, upset, cause to tumble down. O. Fr., *mackles*, pot-hangers or hooks.

MAMMOCKS. Leavings, wasted fragments. 'Eat up your *mammocks*, child.' A thing is torn 'all to *mammocks*.' Wel., *mam*, a handful.

Also *mummocks*, used in America. In Baker's Northampts. Glossary, *mommock*, to maul, mangle; also a dirty mess. *Cocker*, *Kersey*, and others define it, a fragment, scrap. It occurs in *Florio's World of Words*, 1598, and is used by *Shakspeare*.

Whan *mammocks* was your meate, With mould bread to eat.—*Skellon*.

Where you were wonte to have cawdels for your hede,

Nowe must you monche *mammockes* and lumpes of brede.—*Id.*

And then so sliced and slashed them, and tore their planks to *mammocks*, and their lean guts to kites' meat.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

MANNA. The local term for the sand and shingle thrown into Yarmouth Haven by the wind or tides.

O. Fr., *maune*, a vein of earth or sand.—*Cotgr.*

MANNER. Rich mould of any kind, collected for mixing with dung, cor. of *manure*. 'Aw've manner'd the land.'—*N. Ang.* To *manner*, to throw up brows of ditches, or banks for mixing with dung as manure.

MARA-BALK, MERE-BALK. A *balk* or narrow slip of unploughed land, separating properties in a common field. A. S., *mær*

Fris., *mara*, a mark, boundary; Wel., *bale*; Mid. Ang., *meer-balk*.

MARCH-BIRD. A frog. Also a *fen-nightingale*.

MARDLE. I.—A pond, near the house, in the yard or on a green or roadside. Old Fr., *mardelle*, brink of a well. II.—Any gossiping, drawing talk.

II.—*Merdaille*, Walloon, is an importunate, noisy troop of little children. *Meirdel*, Sc. a confused crowd; also a huddle of small animals; Gael., *mordhail*, an assemblage.

MARE'S TAILS. Long narrow clouds, floating below the mass, of a darker hue, and indicating continued rain.

'Water dogs and *mare's tails*

Make lofty ships have low sails.'

MARL. Denoting in East Anglia the clays and soft chalks, spread on the surface of its sandy soils to stiffen and enrich them. pron., *maul*.

From the Wel., *mér*, marrow, and *lith*, to lubricate, soak in water, assert some philologists; the Wel. has also *mar*, what is laid flat down. A. S., *merg*, marrow; Dut., *marghel*, marl, a sort of fat clay; Dan., *mergel*.

From the Kymric it seems to have found its way into Gallic and Latin. Lat., *marga*, a manure; Old Fr., *marle*; (*margula*) Fr., *marne*, marl, clay, chalk, see *Diez*, *Introd. to Gram. of Romance Languages*.

'The lean and hungry earth, the fat and *marly* mould.

Wheresands be always hot, and where the clays be cold.—*Drayton's Polyolbion*.

MARRAMS. The *arundo arenaria*; Gael., *muran*, sea reed; Dut., *marren*, to bind, see pages 237, 240. Isl., *marhalmr*, sea-grass.

MARRISHES. Marshes, lands liable to be flooded. Ang. Nor., *mareis*.

'*Maryce* of a fen (or *myre* or *moore*), *mariscus*, Pr. Pv. *Moore* is the O. Fr. *mare*, any collection of water, a pond; Dut. *maar*, hence Dut. *maerasch*, A. S. *mersc*; L. Ger. *marsch*; O. Fr. *maresq*; Fr. *marais*; Isl. *myri*, a fen; *mor*, peat.

'Whan he cam into that lond, the Scottes fled onto wodes and *marices*, and other straunge place.'—*Capgrave*.

MARSHAL-SEA MONEY. A Norfolk name for the County Rate.

Originating, says Forby, in the new purposes to which the rate was applied by 43, Eliz., c. 2, where payments were directed to be made out of it to 'hospitals, shipwrecked mariners, sufferers by fire, and prisoners in the *Marshalsea*.' Hence applied generally, to the county prison charges, which forms the largest item of county rate expenditure.

MARSHLANDERS. Cattle of the marshland or short-horned breed.

MARTLEMAS-BEEF. 'Biefe salted, dried up the chimney.'—*Hollyband's Dict.*, 1593.

Martlemas, a cor. of *Martinmas*, or the Feast of St. Martin, falling Nov.

11. It was the customary time for hanging up to dry the salted winter provision, winter fed cattle being too lean for killing. In Essex it was dried in the chimney like bacon. *Mart* in the Keltic dialects, a beef or cow.

For Easter at *Martilmas* hang up a beefe;

With that and the like, yer (ere) grasse beef come in,

Thy folke shall look cheerely when others look thin.—*Tusser*.

And warn him not to cast his wanton eyne,

On grosser bacon or salt haberdine;

Or dried fitches of some smoken beeve,

Hang'd on a wrythen wythe since *Martin's Eve*.—*Hall's Satires*.

MASH. a vulgarism for marsh. Common also in the U. S.

MASH, MASK. The mesh of a net. Dan., *maske*; Dut., *mash*; Wel., *masg*; A. S., *maesce*. See note, page 303. *Maske* of a nette.—Pr. Pv. O. H. Ger., *mascá*, a net; Ger., *masche*; O. Fr. *macle*, in Blazon, a *mascle*. At Hastings, *mokes*, the Isl., *möskvi*. The Sw. has *mocka*, a salmon net. Lat., *macula*.

What wanton, wanton nowe well ymet!

What! Margery Mylke Ducke, mermoset!

It wolde be *masked* in my net.—*Skelton*.

MATCHLY. Exactly alike, fitting nicely, pronounced *mackly*; A. S., *macalic*; Flem. *makkelyk*, easy, meet, fit; 'makly or esyly. Pr. Pv.; Sw., *maktig*. In Linc. *matley*.

MAUKIN. A ragged, blowzy wench; a scare-crow; a coarse rag mop. 'Malkyne, or oven swepare.'—Pr. Pv.

Old Eng., *mawk*, a maggot; Isl., *makk*, a grub. Possibly as Nares conjectures *malkin* a dimin. of Mary. The Gael. has *moibeal*, a mop. Old Wel. Dictionaries have *maban*, a puppet. *Maukin*, Sc., a half-grown female, a lass and a *maukin*, a female servant and a girl to assist her. See *mauther* below. Jamieson derives from Ger. *maeghdeken*, a little maid. The Isl., has *morkinn*; Sw., *murkenn*, to rot. 'Morking, a deer or other wild beast that dies by sickness.—*Kersey*.

A sixth sweeps behind the door all earthly felicities, and makes Baker's *Maulkins* of them.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

Could he not sacrifice

Some sorry *morkin* that unbidden dies.—*Hall's Satires, B. III.*

MAUND. A large, open, wicker basket, used in the fisheries and for sowing seed broadcast.

Fr., *mande, manne*, an open basket or pannier having handles.—*Cotgr.* Dut., *maud*; A. S., *mand*. Spelman, Nares, and others have derived *Maundy Thursday* from the *maunds* or baskets in which the royal alms are contained, but Mr. Weigewood has shewn that the *Maundy*, the Catholic ceremonial of washing the feet of poor persons, in imitation of our Lord's example at the institution of the Last Supper, when after it he washed his disciples feet, saying 'Mandatum novum de vobis,' &c., is a cor of the *mandatum*, or in Fr. *mandé*, the office appointed to be read during the ceremony. For the use of the *maund* in curing herrings. see page 300. Dorset, *man* or *mawn*, a large withy two-handled basket for apples, potatoes, &c. At Yarmouth, says *Wright's Prov. Dict.*, the term *maund* is given to a basket containing 500 herrings. 'Mawnd, skype.'—Pr. Pv.

So rides he mounted on the market day,

Upon a straw stuff'd pannel all the way,

With a *maund* charged with household merchandize,

With eggs or white meat from both dairies.—*Hall's Satires, B. IV, 2.*

MAVIS. A thrush; the *turdus musicus*, Lin. Fr., *mawis*.

Of Celtic origin, like so many other names of birds, writes Diez in his *Dict. of the Romance Languages*. Breton, *milvid*; Cornish, *melhues*, (sweet breath).

MAWHLED. Said of beer turning sour.

O. Fr. *mau*, ill, bad, *maudolé*, ill favoured, luskish, Ir., *marbhla*, Wel., *marwawl*, to deaden, grow numb. Sc., *marbel*, sluggish; Gael., *meirbhe*.

MAWSKIN. The stomach, or rather paunch of a calf, which is cleaned and salted to procure rennet used in cheese making.

Dan., *mave*; Swed., *mage*; Ger., *magen*; Dut., *maag*, stomach.

MAWTHUR, MOTHER and **MAU'R.** A girl. The most curious word in the East Anglian vocabulary. A woman and her *mauther* means a woman and her daughter.

At a trial at Norwich, when it was asked who was the evidence of what had been stated, the reply '*a mother playing on the plancharde*' completely nonplussed the judge, until the phrase was interpreted to him as '*a girl playing on the floor*.' The word occurs frequently in Tusser. Ben Jonson uses it in his Alchymist—'Away, you talk like a foolish *mauther*!' says Restive to Dame Pliant, Act iv. 7. His servitor and pupil, Richard Brome makes a more felicitous use of the word.

P. I am a *mother* that do want a service.

Qu. O, thou'rt a Norfolk woman (cry thee mercy).

Where maids are *mothers* and *mothers* are maids.

—*Eng. Moor, III., 1.*

A sling for a *mother*, a bow for a boy.—*Tusser.*

No sooner a sowing, but out by and by,

With *mother* or boy, that alarum can cry.—*Tusser.*

What? will Phillis then consume her youth as an *ankresse*,

Scorning daintie Venus? will Phillis still be a *modder*,

And not care to be called by the deare-sweete name of a *mother*?

—*A. Fraunce's Ivy-church, a. 4.*

Bloomfield also employs the term in his Suffolk Ballad:—

When once a gigling *mauther* you,

And I a red-faced chubby boy.

Sir H. Spelman, seeking to rescue the word from ridicule, asserts that it was applied by our Danish ancestors to the noble virgins, selected to sing the praise of heroes. They were called *scald-moers*, *singing mauthers*, and complains that the Danish word *moer*, an unmarried girl, had become corrupted to *mother*. The two words are effectually distinguished in the local pronunciation, *mauther* being also usually abridged to *mau'r*. In Essex it is applied contemptuously to describe a great awkward girl.

Moder, servaunte or wenche.—*Pr. Pv.*, 1440. *Puera*, a woman chyld, callyd in Cambyrdgeshyre a *modder*. *Pupa*, a yonge wenche, a gyrl, a *modder*.—Elyot, author of the first Eng. Lat. Dict., 1538. *Fille*, a maid, girle, *modder*, lasse.—*Cotgr. Fr. Dic.*, 1634. *Dut.*, *moeder*, the womb; Belg. and Fl., *modde*, a girl; Fris., *moder*; Dan., *maer*, maid; *möbarn*, female child; Sw., *mö*. Bailey has *mother*, a young girl, North Country word. It., *matta*, girl, especially in N. Italy and *Rhetia*, says *Diez*, from O. H. G.: *magat*; Ger. *magd*. Jamieson has Sc. *may*, a maid; Moes. Goes., *mawi*. The Isl. has *maer*, a maid.

The A. S. has *mæth*, a virgin; *mæithad*, puberty; the Wel. *morwyn* and *mor*, maid, damsel, which seem the most obvious, immediate derivations.

MAZY. Sickly, unwholesome, spawned, applied to shotten and inferior herrings. *Masled*, *mesled*, said of diseased hogs.

'*Masyl* or *mazil*, seknesse.'—*Pr. Pv.* *Meseau* a meselled, scurvy, leporous, Lazarus person.—*Cotgr.* Robert de Brunne calls the leprous Baldwin, King of Jerusalem, 'the *meselle*,' as does Wycliffe Naaman, and also the four lepers of Samaria.—See *Way's Notes to Pr. Pv.* Su. Goth., *maslig*; Bret., *mezell*; Ger., *mesel*; *Dut.*, *maselen*, from *maes*, a spot. *Maised*, Sc., is mellow, spoiled from over-keeping.

He kissed a *mysel* and *sodenely* the *mysel* was hol.—*Capgrave.*

It was told me by the vndaunted pursevants of your sonnes, and credibly beleaved in regard of your sinnes; that your grout-headed holinesse had turned yppe your heeles like a tired lade in a meadow and snorted out your scornfull soule like a *mesled* hogge on a mucke-hill.—*Nashe's Almond for a Parrot*, 1589.

MEALS. The sand hills of the East Anglian Coast.

The Isl. *möl*, strand-sands, strand-stones, a place piled up with such stones or sand. Ir., *maol*, a headland, hillock, heap.

MEAL. As much milk as is taken from the cow at a milking.

A. S., *mael*, a measure of aught, space of time. Hence the deriv. of

meals, meal-times, piece-meal, &c. Ger., *ein-mal*, once; Isl., *mál*, a time of taking food, &c.; Fris., *en miel molke fenne kou*.

MEASE. 'An old E. Ang. word denoting five hundred herrings in a net. Isl., *meis*, a basket to carry fish.'—*Wright's Prov. Dict.*

A. S., *maesce*, a mesh; Gael., *meas*, a measure; *measg*, a cask, kit.

Meiss, a case, box, coffer, specially of the smaller sort, wherein hay is carried for cattle.—*Jonsson's Old Nordisk Ordbog*, 1863.

Mease, a measure of herrings is purely Celtic, and hardly known on the East Ang. coast. It is used in the Irish and West Scotland fisheries. Wel., *meys*, a kind of covered basket, pannier, or hamper, also the quantity contained in such vessel. *Mwys o ysgadain*, five score or 630 of herrings.—*Owen's Wel. Dict.* Gael., *miosar*, a measure; Irish, *maois-eisg*, a maise, 500 fishes; Manx, *meaish*, 500 herrings. Sc., *maze*, *meze*, 500 herrings; *maes*, a bushel, Roquefort.

Mase, a net with wide meshes of twisted straw ropes. *Orkney Islands*, *mazie*, a straw net.—*Shetlands*. See under *Mask*.

MELL. To swing or wheel round anything; a large iron hammer or mawl. Wel., *melin*, a mill. Isl., *melja*, to bruise.

MENTLE. A woman's coarse woollen apron. A. S., *mentel*.

MESLIN. A mixture of flour and meal of different grain.

'Years ago in Norfolk thousands of acres yielded no better grain crop than rye, of which the bread of farm households was made. *Meslin* bread made of wheat and rye in equal quantity was for the master's table only.—*Forby*. Fr., *mesler*, to mingle. Still used for farm labourers' diet in N. Anglia. See Dr. E. Smith's Report to Board of Health, 1864. Called there also *masselgem*, from the Dut., *mastelijn*, meslin. In Yorks. the two kinds of grain are sown together, requiring light land. *Mestlyone*, or monge come or dragge.—*Pr. Pv.* And there at the manor of Marlingford, and at the mill loaded both carts with *mestlyon* and wheat.—*Paston Letter*, 1482.

Item, four bushels *mizetelyn* of store.—*L'Estrange House Accounts*, 1519.

The tone is commended for grain,

Yet bread made of beans they do eat,

The tother for one loaf hath twain,

Of *mastline*, of rie and of wheat.—*Tusser*, c. liii

For they were neither hogs nor devils, no devillish hogs, nor hoggish devils, but a *mesling* of two.—*Fairfax*.

MEVE. To move. *Meving*, moving, so also *prove*, for prove.

The bestial *mevyng* of the body.—*Capgrave*.

MICHAELMAS FLAWS. Bad weather common in the autumn equinox.

MIDDLE STEAD. The central and thrashing compartment of barns.

MILLER. A moth, 'probably from its mealy appearance.'—*Forby*.

Dan., *mol*, a moth; Sw., *mölli*; Irish, *miol-críon*.

MILLION. A pumpkin. From *melon*, says Forby; if so, the Gael. form, *meallain*. Pies pumpkin shape are called *milgin-pies*. 'A *million*, une gourde.'—*French Schoolemaster*, 1636. It., *melo*, apple.

MINE. Possessive pronouns are used in a peculiar manner in Norfolk, ex., 'I wish you would come to *mine*.' 'I shall go to-morrow to *yours*.' 'We are invited to *his*.'

MING. To knead, mix as bread; perfect tense, *mung*. 'She *mung* up that bread.' Isl. and A. S., *mengan*, to mix. *Mink-meat*, for fowls, mixed with bran or barley meal.

With the Scottes gan he *menge*, and stify stode in stoure.—*Robert de Brunne*.

The busy bee her honey now she *ming*s.—*Surrey*.

MING. To mention, recall to mind. N. Ang., *mounge*, to fret over. Isl., *minjar*, to call to remembrance; Sw., *minnas*; Dan., *mindegave* Sc., *munge*, to grumble; *munger*, Shropsh., to mutter, murmur, from the Wel., *mwngial*, to murmur.

Could never man work thee a worse shame,

Than once to *minge* thy father's odious name.—*Hall's Satires, B, IV.*

Ay *ming'd*, ay mourn'd, and wished oft in wast.

—*Bp. Hall's Elegy on Dr. Whittaker.*

MINIFER. The white stoat or ermine, the smallest of its species.

Minifer-pin, the tiniest pin.

Old Fr., *menuwer*, Cotgr. *Menu*, little; *seurre*, fur, the latter from *fouerrer*, to case, sheathe, fur; Isl., *fodr*, sheath.

MINK, MINT. To attempt, aim at. Flem., *min*, love, liking; Ger., *meinen*, to intend.

MINNOCK. One who affects over much delicacy. To play the fribble. Also Mid. Ang.

Johnson conjectures it to be *minnick*, from *minnix*, *minx*, and *Richardson* refers *minx* to *miniken*, without supplying deriv. to either. It is clearly an intensive, as *finnickin* is of fine; *winnicking* of whine, and other words ending in *ock*, from the Su. Goth. *oka*, to increase. Probably its root is the Gael. *min*, soft, delicate, tender, as *finnickin*, from the Gael. *fin*, white, fair, fine, also little. Isl., *fin*, to polish up, cleanse. The Wel. has *main*, slender, thin. Or it may be a cor. of *mannikin*: Dut., *mande-ken*, a little man; *kinde-ken*, a little child. Miss Baker conjectures it a cor. of *mimicking*.

'And forth my minnock comes.'—*Mid. N. Dream, 1st Quarto ed.*

The Fr. has *mine*, visage, cheer, posture, flavour, outward shew; *mignon*, dainty, spruce; the Ir. *mineachd*, delicacy, fineness. Sc., *mim-moued*, affected:

Their words are common! for every cut purse vaeth them at the Old Bayly, that hath had any skill in his *miniken* hand-saw.—*Nashe's Plaine Percevail.*

MIS-BEHOLDING. Offensive, affronting. Applied to words. 'I never gave her one *misbeholding* word.'

MISCASUALTY. An unlucky accident. *Miscomfortune*, *miscomhap*, mishap.

MISERY. Acute pain in any part of the body. *Misery-in-the-head*, means a violent head-ache.—*Forby.*

'*Misery*, pain; as 'They say John Soaker never 'gets drunk, but he often has a *misery-in-his-head*,' Southern States'—*Bartlett's Americanisms.*

MISLEN-BUSH. The mistletoe.

Forby derives from *meslen*, brass from its yellow colour; much too far fetched. It is the East Anglian *meslin*, i.e. *mized*, from its parasitical growth upon the oak.

MOFFLE, MUFFLE. To speak thick and inarticulate. Dut., *moffelen*; N. Ang., *maffle*.

Mafin, a simpleton. *Mafsted*, stifled,—Whitby; *maffling*, trifling—Craven. In Linc. applied to a small eater.

MOKE. To pull wenches about at fairs.

MOKY. Misty, cloudy, foggy; Irish, *muich*, a mist; Sw., *mörk*, obscure; Sc., *mirky*.

MOLE. An abortion; a slink or castling, dead ere brought forth.

Otherwise as the unhappy woman who carries a *mole* or abortive in her, hath many feares, and saith either I goe with child, or with my death, so shall it fare with you.—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

Mole-day, a day of burials; a feast made at a burial.—*West Dial.*

MOLE-COUNTRY. The grave or churchyard. 'He's gone to the *mole-country*, bless his bones.'

MOLT. A profuse perspiration.

Var. of moist. Fr., *moite*, damp; Wel., *mwyd*, soaked, damp. Forby regards it as an intens. of *mell*. *Molt-water*, clean exudation; a discharge from a blister is also so called.

MORFRY. A four-wheel'd cart, usually two-horse, of peculiar construction, common round Yarmouth.

A cor. of *hermaphrodite*, from its construction being half cart, half waggon; to the eye, a waggon *razé*. The class of vessel now called brigantine, half brig half schooner, was until lately also so called on this coast by sailors.

In the autumn of 1863 the writer, struck by the odd appearance of a vehicle in Yarmouth market, went up to the driver and accosted him, asking the name of his conveyance. 'A *morfry*, master.'—'How do you spell it?' 'Blessa yo,' yo' maun't ax me, I've ollis heerd it cau'd so.' He pointed out the peculiarities. Where the shaft horse or thiller is usually placed, *fore-summers* (see *ante*) or *croullers* (in Linc., *waggon shelves*; N. Ang., *skeelings*) supported permanently upon the shafts by upright wooden bars, occupy the space, leaving a latticed vacuum beneath the front, into which sacks of produce can be stowed, as in the *boot* of a coach. By this arrangement no weight is born by the horse, it is all draught. 'I've bin a trading voyage this morning, master,' he added.—'How's that,' said I.—'Why, I've brought a load o' taters, and now I'm goin whom wi' this heer jag o' stra.'—'Well, and suppose you'd gone back empty, what then?'—'Why that ad a bin gooin back in ballast like.'—'Well, you've a goodish load.'—'Ay, bor, a brimming load.' Clearly I ejaculated mentally as I left him, my waggoner, with his salt-water similes is as great a *morfry* as his very odd looking conveyance.

(*croullers*, (Mid Ang., *copses*) like other E. Ang. names pertaining to waggons, appears to be Keltic. Wel., *crothell*, a bulging or widening out.

MORK-SHRIEK. A mockery, a humbug, a foolish old wives' tale.

From Dan., *mork*, vapour.—*Forby*. Dan., *skraek*, terror, fright.

MORT. A great number or quantity. Isl., *morgt*, much. *Mortal* is the adjective. 'I'm *mortal* hungry'—'there was a *mortashus* sight 'a people at the fair.' An old Norfolk saw is—'One is none—tew is some—three is a sort—four is a mort.' *Mortling*, a poor wretched mortal.

MOSY. Shaggy, covered with hair. Old Fr., *moisi*, hoary, mouldy, fusty.—*Cotgr.* Isl., *mosi*, moss; Gael., *mogach*, hirsute, bristly.

Moosy-faced, down-chinned, Whitby and Essex.

Mosy is also verging on rottenness, as *mosy* apples. Ger., *moes*? C. Brit., *moydo*, humectari.—*Hartshorne's Salopia*. In Yorkshire, *moskered*. From the Gael. and Ir., *mosgain*, musty, rotten.

MOTHER. The thick skum on vinegar or beer in bottles.

Lees, thickening, mouldiness, or dregs of wine, beer, oil, &c.—*Bailey*. Dut., *modder*, puddle; Dan., *mudder*; Fin., *muta*; Wel., *mwydaw*, soaked, pithy. See CALMY.

MOUSE-HUNT. The stoat, smallest of the weasel tribe.

MOYLE. A mule, a labouring beast. To drudge, also to be stubborn.

Dut., *muyt*. Gypsy, *moila*, a mule.

Theyr styrops of myxt gold begared,
Theyr moyles golde dothe eate,
There may no cost be spared,
Theyr neyghbours dye for meate.

—*Skelton*.

Should we see a child to cark and care for a livelihood, droyl and moyl for a poor living; we presently conclude that he is friendless and fatherless, and left to the wide world to shift for himself.—*Roger's Rich Fool*.

Dost thou give stubborn or moyling answers to thy master or mistress, as Hagar to Sara; or sleevelesse answers, as Gehezi to Elisha?—*Rogers' Lost Sonne*.

MOYSE. To thrive, spoken of crops and stock. Also generally, as 'He muddles on but does not *moyse*.' Gael., *measach*, abounding in fruit; Fr., *moisson*, harvest.

MUCK. A coarse term for money, 'where there's *muck*, there's *money*.'—*Norfolk Proverb*. *Mucketty*, dirty. Isl., *mok*; Fris., *mjuk*.

MUCKINGA, MOCKADOUR. A handkerchief, especially a child's. Johnson has in this sense *muckender*. Gael., *smuig-eudach*, a snot wiper; Span., *mocadero*, a handkerchief; *moco*, muck; *mugack*, snuffling; *smuc*, a snivel; Fr., *mouchoire*, a handkerchief; It., *moccare*, to wipe the nose; Lat., *mucare*, from *mucus*, snot; *emungere*, to blow the nose. Used by the Elizabethan dramatists. Cotgr. has baverette a *mocketer*, to put before the bosom of a slaving child. Ray has *muckender*, a cloth hung at children's girdles to wipe their noses on.

'For eyen and nose the nedeth a *mokadour* or sudary.'

—*Lydgate's Advice to an Old Gentleman who wished for a young Wife*.

MUCK-SPOUT. One very loquacious and foul-mouthed.

MUDGIN, also MERGIN. I.—The rubbish of old walls and ruined buildings mixed with clay, straw, &c., and used for building hovels, low walls, &c. Also mixed with manure as a compost. II.—Also a white sort of marl, the refuse of lime pits; chalky clay used for daubing.

I.—Old Fr., *murgé*, heaps of stones, picked out of vineyards, gardens, &c.—Cotgr. Wel., *murzyn*, ruins of a building; Lat., *murus*, wall. Sw., *mörge*, embers. Ir., *muirgin*, dung, muck. II.—For this see derivations under *Marl*.

Nares has *murgion*, soil from the bed of a river, with the following illustration: 'Many fetch *moore* earth or *murgion* from the river betweene Colebrooke and Uxbridge, and carry it to their barren groundes, 8 or 10 miles off. And the grounds whereupon this kind of soile is employed, wil indure tilth above a dozen yeeres after'.—*Norden's Surveior's Dialogue*, 1610.

MUGGY. Gloomy, damp, murky weather, but neither rain nor fog. A *roke* is a fog; a *smur*, a drizzling rain.

Wel., *mucci*, fog, from the root *mug*, smoke; Gael., *muig*, misty, vapoury; Breton, *mouga*, stifling; Isl., *mugga*, thick, obscure weather.

MULCH. A compost of rotten leaves, litter, road scrapings, &c. In Suf. a thick mixture of earth and water for moistening roots of transplanted shrubs. Also applied to anything thick, slabby, simi-liquid. N. Ang., *mush*. *Mulch*, Essex, is half-rotted straw.

A. S., *moltnad*, rotten; Pl. Dut., *molseh*, soft, mellow; Wel., *mallu*, to sodden; Ir., *malcadh*, rotting; North Ital., *molla*, slime. *Melsh*, said of weather mild and warm, inclined to moisture, Leeds.

MULDERY, MULTERY, MULLY. Soft, crumbling, mellow. Dut., *mullen*, to crumble; Isl., *molna*, to moulder.

N. Ang., *murl*; Leeds, *merl*; Cumb., *mul*, the dust of peats, 'as *murly* as a short cake.' Dorset, *multum*, 'as soft as a *multum* cheese.'

MULL. Soft, breaking soil; Su. Goth., *mull*; A. S., *myl*, dust; Ger., *molt*; Lanc., *mullock*, dirt; Wel., *mwthoc*, refuse, sweepings. Ir., *mulach*, puddle-water, mud.

The *mullocke* on an hepe ysweped was.—*Chaucer*.

MULTER or MULTA. Land, laid in ridges, exposed to air and frost to pulverise is said when next ploughed to *multer*, i.e., become friable, mellow.

Dut., mullen, to crumble. Goth., *mulda*, dust. Isl., *mölva*, to break small; Wel., *mallu*, to break into fine particles; It., *mollare*; Fr., *mouiller*, to yield, soften; Ger., *molt*, garden mould. See *mulch*, *mulder*, and *mull* above.

MUMPER. A beggar. Dut., *mompen*, to trick, deceive.

MUNG. A mixture of coarse meal with milk, for the food of dogs, pigs, or poultry. N. Ang., *mang*. See *ming*.

MURE-HEARTED. Soft-hearted, meek. Sw., *mör*, tender, soft, Wel., *mur*, friable, crumbling.

MUSE. The hole in a hedge through which hares and rabbits pass as a common track.

Trouée, a gap or *musel* in a hedge,—*Cotgr.* *Mesh*, the run or lair of hares. Dorset, 'Tis as hard to find a hare without a *muse* as a woman without a *scuse*.—*Green's Thieves Falling Out*. O. Fr., *musse*, secret corner, hiding hole.

MUSH. Guardedly silent, mum. Fr., *musser*, to hide; Ger., *sich maussen*, to hide like a mouse. 'Neither *mush* na *kush*!' Sc.

NABBITY, NOBBLETTY. Short in stature, but full grown; said of a diminutive female. Gael. and Wel., *cnap*, a knob, round body; Isl., *nabb*; Dut., *knobbel*. *Nap*, (A. S., *cnaep*), a small rising, Somerset.

NABBLE. To gnaw; a stronger term than *nibble*. Hares are said to *nabble* growing corn. Mice *nibble* and rats *nabble* our provisions.

Dut., *knabbelen*, to gnaw; Pl. Dut., *knappern*, to munch dry hard food with a crunching noise; *knabbeln*, to gnaw audibly; when the noise is somewhat finer, replaced by *knibbeln*.—*Danneil*

Barnes in his 'Dorset Glossary' has *snabble*, to eat up greedily or hastily.

'Where the hay-meäkers put all their picks and their reäkes,
An' did squat down to *snabble* their cheese an' their ceäkes.'

—*Vellen the Tree, Barnes' Poems*, vol. I.

NAB-NANNY. A louse.

NAKED-BOYS. The autumn crocusses, which flower without leaves.

NANCY. A small lobster. At Whitby a *ninny-cock*.

NARROW-WRIGGLE. See *erri-wiggle*.

NASHUN and **NA-TIVE**. One's own town or neighbourhood. 'I fare to be out of my *nashun*.' 'Beccles is my *na-tive*.' Common amongst uneducated people in the Southern States.

'I fare to be out of my *nashun*,' plaint of home-sick E. Ang. servant.

NATTER-JACK. A species of toad—the *Bufo calamita*.

Common in the district of the Broad. Distinguishable by its short hind legs, prominent eyes, yellow lines along the back and black bands on the legs. *Natter*, to chatter; Wel., *nadur*, one who utters shrill cries; Flem., *knoter*, to chirp; *nyatrie*, peevish, Aberdeen.

NATTLE. To bustle and stir over trifles. Wel., *nazial*, to be cutting or chipping continually.

The Wel. *z* is a mutation of *d*, and has the soft or flat sound of *th*.

Nattle, N. Ang., to hit one hard substance against another, gently and quick; to make a noise like a mouse gnawing a board.—*Brockett*. *Nattering*, Whitby. *Nattlen*, Flem., to tell over again; Gael., *gnath*, unremitting; *nattle*, to tap at or rattle lightly, as at a door or window, Lake dial.

NAY-SAY. The right or opportunity of refusal. 'Give me the *nay-say* of it.' Mid Ang., *no-say-nay*, no refusal.

NAZZLE. A diminutive of ass. *Forby* calls it a ludicrous one, but why? It is the Gael. *asal*, ass; Wel., *asyn*; D. and Fl, *esel*.

NEAR. The fat of the kidneys. In Suffolk called *aiyah*, *ear*, and *hiyah*.—*Moor*.

From A. S., *nyre*, very tender, conjectures *Forby*. Rather from the Gael., *ara*, pl., *airnean*; Wel., *aren*, kidneys; Dan., *nyren*; Isl., *nyra*; Fris., *nier*.

NECKING, NECKINGER. A cravat or neckerchief. See *muckinger*.

NECKUM, SINKUM, SWANKUM. The three draughts into which a jug of beer is divided.

NEEDLE. A piece of wood put down by a post to strengthen it.

NEEDLES. A common weed among corn; the *scandix pecten*, Lin.

NEEST-GULP. The weakest and smallest bird of a brood. A. S., *nesc*, tender. Possibly from *gulp*, a mouthful; its sense in several dialects.

Niscal, the smallest of a brood, Heref.; *nestling*, Grose; *nestlecock*, N. Ang. I.; Somerset, *nesle tripe*; in Devonsh., *nestledrait*; Pl. Dut., *nestkiken*.

NEMIS. Least for fear that, Suff. Lat., *ne*.

Mauther gang the grizen into the vaunce-roof, bring my hat from off the spurket, ding the door after you *nemis* the cat should get in and eat the suncate.—*Grose's Specimen of Suffolk Dialect*.

NIP, NIP. The herb cat-mint. *Nepeta cataria*. Its white down has given rise to the simile, 'as white as nip.' A. S., *nepte*.

NEPHEW, NEVVY. Applied to grandsons in Norfolk.

'Neve, sonys sone.'—*Pr. Po.* 'Heber was neve onto Sem.'—*Capgrave*.

Restrained in our present use to the son of a brother or sister; but formerly of much laxer use, a grandson, or even a remote lineal descendant. *Nephew* in fact has undergone exactly the same change that *nepos* in Latin underwent, which in the Augustan age meaning grandson, in the post-Augustan age acquired the signification of *nephew* in our present acceptation of that word. *Niece* has undergone the same limitation, but applied to the female sex alone, being once used as *neptis* was at first, for children's children, male and female alike.—*Archbp. Trench's Select Glossary*. *Nephew* and *niece* are O. Fr., cor. of the Lat. *nepos* and *neptis*, into *neveu*, *nieps* and *niece*.—See *Cotgr*.

NET-BRAIDING. Net weaving. See *braid*. Irish, *lion-obraidhe*, a lint or net-maker.

Yarmouth, if the like occasion were, could clap up as good a shew of *net-braiders*, or those that have no clothes to wrap their hides in, or bread to put in their mouths, but what they earn and get by *braiding* of nets.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

NETTUS. The *neat-house* where cows are milked.

NEWDICLE. Something new; *newelty*, novelty.

NEXTING. Very near. A. S., *nextan*.

NICKLED. Said of crops beaten down by wind, hail, rain.

Dan., *knygge*, to blow a storm; *knække*, to crack, snap, to humble, bring down; Dut., *knikken*, to bruise, bend; Fris., *knuke*, to beat, press down; Ger., *nicken*, to nod; Fr., *niqne*.

NIDGET. To assist a woman in travail. A. S., *nid*, need; Dan., *knide*, dilemma, hobble.

Nares has 'to go a *nigiling*,' to go to fetch mid-wives, nurses, and gossips. A *nidgel* is said also of an amateur mid-wife's services. *Nidulate* (from Lat.) to make or build a nest.—*Bailey*.

NIFFLE-NAFFLE. To trifle; play with one's work.

Nifle, trifle.—*Kelham's Norm. Dict.* *Cotgr.* has *nipes*, trifles, *nifles*. *Niff-naffs*, trifles, knock-knacks. The radical idea, says Wedgewood, 'is a snap with the finger.' Fr., *niquet*; Ger., *knipp*, a snap or filip. N. Ang., *niffle*, to steal; Whitby, *naffling* and *shaffling*, trifling about. *Niffle*, to swallow

hastily, Northampts. *Niffle*, a thing of little or no value.—Old Law Term.—*Bailey*. *Neaphle*, a trifle, Sc. Su. Goth., *nipp*.

Yes, yes, I am yet as full of game

As ever I was, and as full of tryfys,

Nil, nihilum, nihil, Anglice, nyfys.—*Skelton*.

NIFFLING. Wining, unhappy; said of a child.

From the Isl. and Teut. root *neb*, the nose, 'softened in the Romance languages to It., *niffolo*. Hence Limousin, *nifla*; Picardian, *nifler*; Fr., *renifler*, to sniff; Bav., *niffeln*; Ger., *s-nuffeln*; Eng., *snuffle*.'—*Diez*.

Cotgr. has *nifler*, to snifter, or snuffe up, snivel. Wel., *gnif*, pain, anxiety.

NIGGER. The E. A. form of snigger. A. S., *hnægan*; Swed., *gnagga*; Isl., *kneggia*, to neigh, laugh coarsely; N. Ang., *nicker*.

NIGGLING. Careful, laborious, working out by patient detail.

Used here in vulgar but cognate senses, ex., 'He *niggled* him of his money,' said of an affected, mincing gait—ex., 'Ka there how she *niggle* along'—of a pinching existence, 'We make but poor outs of our lowans, we *niggle* it out as well as we can.' *Nigler*, an industrious person, Cumb.; *nigg*, a small piece, Essex.

Possibly a dimin. of *niggardly*. The Isl. has *gnagga* and *gnaga*, to gnaw, nibble; deriv. of our Eng. *naggle*; Dan., *gnidst*; Sw., *njugg*, niggardly. The Wel., has *nig*, narrow, strait, *gnif*, trouble, toil, anxiety.

NILDY-WILDY. Whether he would or no. A. S., *nillan*, *willan*.

NIP. A near split-farthing housewife. Also a turnip, Ir., *neip*;

A. S., *naep*; Sc., *neep*. Its old name.

NISY. A poor simpleton, an ass, a perpetrator of *niaiseries*. See *Nazle*. Common in our Eliz. writers.

Niais, a *minnie*, fop, noddie, cockney, dotterell, peagoose, &c.—*Cotgr*.

NITTLE. Neat, pretty, tidy, shining. Lat., *nitidus*.

NITTY. Applied to the hair, when filthy and covered with the eggs of lice.

A. S., *hnitu*; Dut., *neet*; Isl., *nyt*.—'It is an illustration of the dirty habits of people in former times that this insignificant object, the *nit*, has the same name, allowing for dialect, in all Ger. and Scand. languages, in Welsh, Bohemian, Polish, Greek, having accompanied our race from its first Asiatic home.'—*Dr. R. C. Prior*.

Then begins hee to take his sissars in his hand, and his comb, and so to snap with them, as if he meant to give a warming to all the lice in his *nitty* locks for to prepare themselves.—*Greene's Quip for an Upstart Courtier*.

Although he goes vngartred like a malecontent cut-purse, and wears his hat ouer his eyes lyke one of the cursed crue, yet cannot his stabbing dagger, or his *nittie* loue-locke, keepe him out of the legend of fantastical cockscombes.—*Nashe's Pierce Penilesse*.

NOAH'S ARKS. Clouds resembling the conventional form of the ark, turned bottom upwards, and which are supposed to predicate rain.

NOBBLE. A bit off a loaf, &c. 'I cut her a great *nobble* off the loaf, and she ax'd me if we'd any warmin that ad eat it, for she would'nt,' said of a sturdy beggar.—*Moor*. Gael., *cnap*, a lump; Pl. Dut., *knobbe*.

NOBBY. A very young foal. Wel., *ebawl*. *Nob* and *nobby*, Heref. and Glouc., common for a young colt.

NOBLE. The navel. Isl., *nabli*.—*Forby*. Ger., *nabel*.

NORSTICK-WEDDING. A compulsory one by the parish officers, the woman being pregnant and likely to be chargeable, Norfolk.—*Wright's Prov. Dict.*

Nog. A sort of strong heady ale, peculiar to Norwich, says *Forby*. 'Walpole laid a quart of *nog* on't,'—*Swift*. Of all the innumerable compounds for which Uncle Sam is famous, none surpass his *egg-nog*, when deftly compounded and swallowed slick off.

The der. opens an unlimited field of conjecture. Sw., *nocka*, to beat up; *nog*, nice; Wall., *nog*, *encore*; Wel., *nug*; Gael., *gnog*, a shaking up; Wel., *cynghogi*, to blend together; *egg-nog*, to be properly made, requiring to be long and unweariedly kept stirring. 'Noggin, a little piggen of about a pint.—*Ray's North Country Words*. Nogan, Gael., is a wooden cup.

NOGGING. Courses of brick-work between stout studs or upright and diagonal timbers, coloured in white and black chequer or *pane* work.

An old and most picturesque mode of building. Numerous fine existing examples occur to the writer, in the streets of Chester, Stafford, Bristol, and, in the ancient, manorial granges of the Midland Counties. *Moor* remarks, the wood seems to outlast the interstitial masonry. As the chalets of Switzerland and the Tyrol harmonize with their Alpine backgrounds, so do these grand old timbered 'houses of seven gables,' so rich in colour and contrast, in their many-peaked roofs and pinnacles, their barge-boards and dormer windows; their sunny, honey-suckled casements and porches, glisten in the rich verdure of our noble English woodland scenery, true and genuine embodiments of the *genius loci*. Why cannot the broad affluence of this once peculiarly English construction be revived? It is sorely needed in this age of mean, pretentious, architectural shams, of cold, staring, shadowless, unsubstantial glass and iron, of perky Italian villas, and pinched up railway-station Gothic; or are these old abodes, decaying memorials of a vanished age, of a squirearchy and yeomanry, whose types have perished from the land.

Of obscure etymology. The root may possibly be the Wel. *cyn*, a wedge; *cynais*, wedge-like; *cynhor*, a door-frame; *cynhugyl*, plaited or matted work; *cynhogwz*, a bending together; *cynghogi*, to blend, bind together. This last appears the immediate derivation.

NO'HN. Syncopated form of nothing.

NOILS. Coarse, refuse locks of wool, of which mops and dwiles are made.

Never applied, says *Miss Baker's Northampts. Gloss.*, to any wool in its natural state, but that in the process of combing the short wool which will not pull out to any length, and is left on the comb, after the slither is drawn, is called Noils. Query from the A. S., *nyllan*, to be unwilling, or the Wel. *cynnull*, to collect. The Wel. has *wlân*, wool; Gael., *olann*; Gr., *mallos*.

NO'MATTERS. Not very well. 'I don't fare *no matters*.' 'A don't behave to me *no great matters*.'

NONNACKS. Light, irregular work, idle whims. *Nonnaken*, idling, dawdling. Possibly a cor. of *no maks*, do nothing.

NONNY. To trifle, play the fool.

'Applied chiefly, says *Forby*, 'to the fondling and toying of sweet-hearts, and when the fair one is coy, and cries, 'be quiet,' 'you shan't,' &c. He derives from the Low Fr., *nenni*, no. The Isl. has *renning*, brisk, sprightly; the Wel. *nynnu*, to inflame; *ennynfa*, an ardour, heat; *cynhenu*, to wrangle; *nantle*, to fondle, Lake dial.

NOONINGS. The dinner of reapers. A. S., *non-mete*, cor. in var. dialects to *nommet*, as in the *Gower Peninsula*, (see p. 502,) 'Nunmete,' Pr. Pv. *Nummet*, Somerset.

'*Nooning*, beavre, drinking or repast, *ad nonam*, three in the afternoon, called by the Saxons *non-mete*, in ye North parts a noonchion, an afternoon's nunchion.'—*Bp. Kennett's Gloss. Coll.* In Lanc. *noon-scape*, and in Norfolk *noon-miss*, the time when labourers rest after dinner.

Yet I see he that was cooke and cater thought to feed Martin with these *nuncheons*, as men feed apes, with a bit and a boxe on the eare!—*Nash's Plaine Percevall*.

'On sheafes of come were at their *noonshuns*' close.'—*Browne's Brit. Past.*
NOPPET. A bunch of wood or straw, Norf.; dimin. of Dut. *knop*.
NORFOLK CHURCHES.

'This county hath the most Churches of any in England, (six hundred and sixty,) and though the poorest livings, (by some occult quality of their good husbandary and God's blessing thereon,) the richest clergymen.'—*Fuller's Worthies*, 1662.

NORFOLK DUMPLINGS. Globular, made of dough and yeast, and boiled for twenty minutes; light ones are called *pot-cakes*. Applied sometimes to the Natives by 'foreigners' from the 'sheers.'

'This cannot be verified of any dwarfish or diminutive stature of people in this county, being as tall of their bodies, and as tall of their arms too, I assure you, as any in England. But it relates to the fare they commonly feed on, so generally called. I wish much good may it do them, and that their bodies thereby may be enabled for all natural, civil and spiritual performances.'—*Fuller's Worthies*.

NORFOLK WILES.

'For Norfolk wiles, so full of guiles,
Have caught my toe by wrong so,
That out to thee (Suffolk) I see for me
No way to creep.'—*Tusser*.

'Such the skill of the common people hereof in our Common-Law,* wherein they are so versed, *ut si nihil sit litium lites tamen ex juris apicebus serere callent* If I must go to law I wish them rather of my counsel than my adversaries. For whereas *pedibus ambulando* is accounted but a vexatious suit in other counties, here, (where men are said to study law as following the plough-tail) some would persuade us that they will enter an action for their neighbours horse but looking over their hedge.'—*Fuller's Worthies*.

To check the litigiousness of the district an Act was passed A. D. 1455, 33, Hen. VI., c. 7:—Whereas, of time not long past, within the city of Norwich and the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk, there were no more but six or eight attorneys at the most that resorted to the King's Courts, in which time great tranquillity reigned in the said city and counties, and little trouble or vexation was made by untrue and foreign suits: And now so it is, that in the said city and counties, there be fourscore attorneys or more, the more part of them having no other thing to live upon but only his gain by the practise of attorneyship, and also the more part of them not being of sufficient knowledge to be an attorney, which come to every fair, market and other places where is any assembly of people; exhorting, procuring, moving and inciting the people to attempt untrue foreign suits for small trespasses, little offences and small sums of debt, whose actions be triable and determinable in Court Barons; whereby proceed many suits, more of evil will and malice than of the truth of the thing to the manifold vexation and no little damage of the inhabitants of the said city and counties, and also to the perpetual destruction of all the Court Barons in the said counties, unless convenient remedy be provided in this behalf: the foresaid Lord the King considering the premises, by the advice, assent and authority aforesaid, hath ordained and established, that at all times from henceforth there shall be but six common

* Tacitus praises the taste and quickness of the Britons. Juvenal notices their capacity for pleading causes. Horace speaks of the Britons as untamed, and Cicero in writing to Atticus advises him to prefer any slave he might find in the Mart to the Briton, as he was so void of mind, and unsusceptible of improvement.'—*Hamilton's Yorksh. Dialect*.

attornies in the said county of Norfolk, and six common attornies in the said county of Suffolk, and two common attornies in the said city of Norwich, to be attornies in the Courts of Record; and that all the said fourteen attornies shall be elected and admitted by the two Chief Justices of our Lord the King for the time being, of the most sufficient and best instructed, by their discretions.'

Many ludicrous illustrations of the local propensity 'to law each other,' on the most trivial pretexts, might be gathered up in the district,—as also of 'that sharpness of wit' in the practitioners, of which Camden made mention three centuries ago. Of one departed Yarmouth worthy, it is related that a man, walking in advance of him in the street, stooped down and picked up a small gold coin. Rubbing the treasure trove he turned round and handed it to the lawyer, exclaiming interrogatively—'Master, isn't this a seven-shilling piece?'—'Quite right, my good man,' he replied, 'you are perfectly correct in your supposition,' and pocketing the coin brought out another. 'My fee for consultation is 6s. 8d., your change will be a groat, and here it is.' On another occasion a friend bargaining at one of the market peds for poultry, turned to him and sportively asked his opinion on the choice displayed before them. A few days after a bill came in—'To advising with you on the purchase of a goose, 6s. 8d.'

NORSELS. The short lines supporting, at 6-in. intervals, herring nets on their ropes. A. S., *nosle*, a point to tie with, a strap string; Dut., *nestel*. *Nostylle* of nettys.—Pr. Pv. Prov., *noscla*, buckle; O. Fr., *nassel*, the 'chinne-band of a helmet.—*Cotgr.*

NOSLE. The handle of a cup, &c. The *nosle* of a candlestick; that part which holds the end of a candle.—*Halliwell.*

Item, j candylstyck of sylver percell gylt, dowble noslyd.—*Falstol'e's Inventory.*

NOTTAMY. A skeleton; cor. of anatomy.

'He's wasted to a *nottamy*.'

NOUZLE, NUZZLE. To nestle, snuggle. Dut., *neuselen*, to search with the nose.

An hypocrite sees not such mercy from God, or else vanishes in the fruit of them, lets all goe, and *nouzes* himselfe in a blinde hope all shall be well; whiles yet old sinnes and dalliyngs are upon the score, unrepented of and unforgiven—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

'When a poore soule falls on meditating of what he hath heard at such a sermon, what doth it, but with the childe in the night, *nuzzle* for the mother's breast and missing the nipple, laies hold on the flesh and sucks the breast black, but hath no nourishment?'—*N. Rogers' Lost Sonne.*

NUB. The nape of the neck. Ger., *nap*; Fr., *nucque*. Also *nuddle*. 'Cut a lock of hair from the *nuddle* of the neck, and hang it in the *doke* of the stummuck.' *Old Suffolk Charm.*

'*Nuddlin* is used in the sense of wearisome stooping. Whilst reaping wheat which was waited or laid, I lately heard a man say, "'twas sich *nuddlin* work."—*Moor.*

In other dial. *noddle*. Dut., *knodde*; Dan., *knude*, a bump, protuberance.

NUMPOST. An imposthume.

NUNTY. Very plain and old-fashioned, applied to dress: stunted.

Nauty, Mid. Ang., is old-fashioned, shabby, scanty; *nunting*, curtailed in dimensions. Perhaps from Wel. *hynaint*, antiquated, or Wel. *dynan*, a little woman.

NUSHED. Starved, ill fed. Gael., *aognaich*, to emaciate.

NUTCROME. A crook for pulling down filberts or hazels. Walnuts are dashed or brushed with a long pole.

OAMY. Light, porous, floury, spoken of plowed land.—See *Loamy*.

OAT-FLIGHT. The chaff of oats, lighter than that of any other grain, and used by the poor for stuffing of beds.

OFF-CORN. Light, refuse grain, given to poultry or stock.

'Such *off-corn* as cometh, give wife to her fee.—*Tusser*.

OLD. A redundant adjective of perpetual occurrence in East Anglian dialogue, and used like *bor* without the least reference to the age of the objects. 'Look at yinder *old* hare in that there *old* pittle.'

OLD NOLPE. See *Alp*. In Dorset, a bull-finch is a *mwope*.

OLD SARAH. A hare, Suff.

OLD-SHOCK OR SHUCK. A spectre dog, much connected with the Danes; walks the Cromer Coast Road, last seen at North Repps, 1853, A. S., *soucca*, Satan.—*Miss Gurney*.

OLD-SOWS. Mille-pedes, woodlice. The species which roll up on being touched are believed, if swallowed, to have medicinal virtue in the ague and in scrofulous cases, specially if gathered from the roots of aromatic potherbs.—*Forby*.

OLD-WITCH. The cock-chaffer, called also *buzzard* and *daw*.

OLLANDS. (Old Land.) Lay ground, old land that has lain untilled, and is newly ploughed, Suff. In Essex called New Land.

ONTO. Upon. 'I'll lay my stick *onto* you.' Common in U. S.

ORATION. Used in the sense of narration, public talk.

ORRUCK HOLES. Oar-drawing holes, as distinct from thole pins which are less used in the Cromer boats. Dan., *rykke*, to draw, comp. with *rullocks*.—*A. Gurney*.

ORTS. Broken fragments, over-eatings of victual or of cattle food.

Frisic, *orten*, to leave something *over* in eating; Dan., *ovred*, over, past; *ort*, *örel*, is stale, musty; Dut., *oor-aete*; Pl. Dut., *ortels*. 'In Sc. a cow *orts* her provender when she tosses it aside: a child *orts* it when he crumbles it: a father marrying his daughters without regard to seniority, is said to *ort* them Leeds, *oits* and *otts*; A. S., *oretlan*, to spoil, defile.

The liberal housekeeper of the world will not allow the loss of his *orts*, the children's bread may not be given to dogs.—*Bishop Hall's Contemplations*.

OUT-A-HEART. Worn out; applied to land over-cropped.

OUT-A-WAH. Out of joint, as the shoulder, ancle, wrist, &c. 'A put a's sheowda out o' the wah.'

OUT-SHIFTS. Out-skirts, borders and extremities.

OVEN-BIRD. The long-tailed titmouse. *Parus caudatus*, Lin.

So called from its nest, which is also termed a pudding poke. The bird itself is more commonly called the long-tailed *pick-cheese*.

OVER-GIVE. To thaw, exude or ferment.

OVER-HEW. Said of plants growing too luxuriantly.

OVER-LASH. To exceed. Frequently used by Bp. Hall.

OVER-WORN. Said of old clothes given away.

OWE. To own, possess. 'Mr. Brown *owes* that farm.'

Its original sense; very common in Shakspeare. Not changed to *own* in the Bible until the last century. Goth., *aigan*; A. S., *agan*; Isl., *eiga*, to possess, own.

OWLEN, OWLGULLEREN. To pry, examine. *Owly* is to feel half stupid. After 'rousing the night owl with a catch,' to feel like that 'moping' fowl next morning.

PACK-GATE. A gate on a packway, often lying through inclosed lands. Many such ways and gates retain their names and uses in High Suffolk.—*Forby*.

PACK-RAG-DAY. Old Michaelmas day, when servants change their situations. In Yorks. dial. *pack-bag-day*; Su. Goth, *pack-a*, to bind together; *packa*, baggage.

PACK-STAFF. *Plain as a*. In other dial. *pike-staff*.

'Not riddle-like obscuring their intent;

But, *pack-staff* plain, utt'ring what things they meant!'

—*Hall's Satires*, B. III.

PAGE. The lad attending on a shepherd. Fr. *page*, a serving boy; '*page de navire*, a ship boy.'—*Cotgr.*

PAIGLE, PEGYLL, PYGIL. A cowslip, whence *paigle* wine and tea are made. Also in Suffolk applied to the crowfoot, the *cuckoo-flower*. *Ranunculus Bulbosus*, Lin.

Forby derives from A. S. *pæll*, 'a die-plant, a purple robe.' Dr. R. C. A. Prior, in his *Pop. Names of Brit. Plants*, has a long passage upon it; remarking that the name is now scarcely heard, except in the Eastern Counties.

He adds 'it is a word of extremely obscure and disputed origin. Dictionaries derive it from *paralysis*. Foster, in his *Perennial Calendar*, says that it evidently signifieth *pratingale*, from *prata*, meadows, where it delighteth to grow. It were easy to speculate upon possible sources of the name, as Fr., *epingle*, from its pin-shaped pistil; *speckle*, in allusion to the cinq-spotted corolla, or it may be a cor. of its Mid Lat. name *verbasculum*.' At the close of other and more remote conjectures he concludes—'it is for East Anglians to follow up the enquiry. There may be some very common words in their dialect which would at once explain it.'

Its probable root is derivable from its yellow colour; Isl., *gulr*; Dan., *gul*, yellow, with the preposition prefixed to so many Danish words, *paa*, on, upon, in, —*paa-gul*, of a yellow surface.

The Gael. has *buidhe*, yellow; *buidheag*, any yellow flower. The metathesis of *b* into *p* from Keltic to English is common, vide Parson Sir Hugh Evans, in the "Merry Wives of Windsor," and the Gael. *dh* has our sound of *gh*. Gr. *poikilis*, a bird, like a gold-finch, Lid and Scott, but the Gr. root has the sense of varied, broidered colour.

Tusser, among his strewing herbs, has cowslips and *paggles*; and for windows and pots—'*paggles*, green and yellow.' Ital., *giallo*; Old High German, *gelo*; Dut., *geel*; A.S. *gelew*.

'The yellow marigold, the sunne's own flower,

Page and *pinke* that decke faire Flora's bower.'

—*Heywood's Marriage Triumphe*, 1613.

'*Blake* (yellow) as a *paigle*,' Yorksh. Proverb.—*Ray*.

'*Hero*, for that she was *pagled* and tympanised.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

PAJ OR PAHJ. A purge. 'A'v taken a *paj* this maurun, an' a fare but kiender tuly.'

The following is a wholesome piece of advice as to following a field. 'Ta owt to be stored ahly an then late ta *paj*.' I do not know if this requires translation; but if *ta dew*, the following is the same in common English, with an interpolated gloss—'It ought to be stirred (ploughed) early, and then lay to purge' (itself of weeds, to be ploughed in at the second ploughing).—*Moor*.

PALTRY. Rubbish, refuse, or trash of any sort. N. Ang., *palttery*.

1st. *paltra*; Dan., *pialt*; Prov. Ger., *paller*, rags, tatters, *pallerig*, paltry; Old Fr., *peautraile*, scurvy old stuff, scrapings of skins or leather.

The date of idle vanities is expired, away with these scribbling *paltries*.—*Gabriel Harvey's Pierce's Supercreration*, 1593.

I little delight in such paltry.—*G. Harvey's Four Letters*, 1592.

PAMMENTS. Square paving bricks. Cor. of *pavements*.

PAMPLE. To trample lightly. A child *pamples* about a walk or garden bed newly raked, or a floor new washed, and a slight raking or washing effaces the traces, but if a heavy-heeled fellow *slods* over either, the work must be all done again.—*Forby*. Also to walk as if the feet were tender.

The strong sense of trample (foot-stamp) softened into *pample*. The Dan. has *pampusse*, a list shoe; Ger., *pampeln*, to bob, dangle; 'O. Eng., *pomple*, to stumble, from O. N., *pompa*,' writes H. Coleridge, in Dict. of O. E. Words.

PAN. The crust of hard earth below that moved by the plough.

Wel., *panu*, to beat, bang, give a thick surface, *paniad*, matted together, thickened by beating, pressure. *Forby* derives from A. S. *panna*, scull.

PAN. To be hardened, as the surface of soil by hot sun following heavy rain. To bind firmly, as a clay floor or gravel road.

PAN. 'A fire-shovel is called in Norfolk a *fire-pan*.'—*Amyot*. A. S., *panna*, an iron pan.

Item j *Firepanne*, Item j *payre of Tongus*.—*Inventory of Fastolfe's Effects*.

PANE. A counterpane.

Item j *Rede Pane furred wythe connyngs* (rabbit-skins)—*Inventory of Fastolfe*. O. Span., *pena*, fur.

A. S., *pan*, a piece, patch; O. Fr., *pan*, a piece of cloth, a skirt.

PANE. A regular portion or division of field labour, as sowing, digging, weeding, &c. The quantity of clay or brick noggin between the wooden studs. *Paned*, striped, mottled, speckled.

Of the bigness of a thrush, coloured and *paned* like a hawk.—*Sir T. Browne*.

A. S., *pan*, a hem, plait. *Pane* or part of a thynge, pagina.—*Pr. Parv.* Fr., *pan*, a pane, piece, pannel, or skirt.—*Cotgr.*

PANEL, PARNEL. An unchaste woman. O. Fr., *paneau*.—*Cotgr.*

PANNIKIN. Fretting. Dut. and Flem., *pynighen*, to pain, torment.

The N. Ang., *peenging*, uttering peevish complaints, may be the A. S., *pyngan*.

PAR-YARD. An enclosed straw yard for cattle. *Par*, a beast pen.

Wel., *parc* and *parrog*; Gael., *páirc*; A. S., *pearruc*, enclosure. From the Keltic, *Diez* remarks the Lat. and Romance var. *parcus*, *parque*, &c., are derived. Languedoc, *parghe*, a cattle fold; *paigha*, to fold cattle; N. Ang., *parruck*; Dorset, *parrick*; *partles*, sheeps-dung, Cumb.

In Norfolk, an enclosed place for domestic animals, as calves, is called a *par*, and the farm-yard containing *pars* for the various stock is called a *par-yard*.—*Forby*.

In 1616 a fenced enclosure of nine acres at Hawsted, Suff., in which deer were kept in pens for the course, was termed the *Parrock*. The spot was a mile long and a quarter broad, and narrower at one end than the other. In 1581 it was called *le Pok*, perhaps from its shape.—*Cullum's Hawsted*, p. 210.

PASH. To beat anything brittle into small fragments, to dash, bruise. N. Ang., to bruise, crush; aught decayed.

AJAX.—'If I go to him, with my armed fist,

I'll *pash* him o'er the face,'—*Shakspeare*, *Troilus and Cressida*.

Beaten down with clubs, and their heads *pashed* in pieces.—*North's Plutarch*.

Wel., *baezu*; Bret., *basa*; to bruise, pound; Dan., *baske*, to thwack; Sw., *basa* and *piska*, to beat. In Lanc. *pash* is a sudden gust, an outbreak; Wel., *pas*, that is expulsive.

N. Ang., *pash*, a fall of rain or snow. Dut., *plas*, a deluge; *pash*, to trudge about; *pashy*, slushy, Craven; N. Ang., *poss*, to dash violently in water. *Poss*, a waterfall—Craven; *polssen*, Flem., to agitate water, to pump; Dan., *pladskregn*, a heavy shower; Sw., *plaska*; Ger., *patschen*, to splash.

'There is a distinction between a 'pash' and a 'splash' of rain. 'Here's a wet day, John! Ey, it dizzels and dozzels an duz. Will it continue? Nay, it may be a bit of a splash, but it willent be a girt *pash*.'—*Anderson's Cumb. Dial.*

But now the rain will rough enter through the crannies of their wavering, the winds will blow and batter open wide passages for the *pashing* showers.—*Nashe's Christ's Tears*, 1593.

PATCH-UPON. To impute blame rashly or wrongfully. 'He *patch'd* it upon me.' A. S., *pæcan*, to deceive, bear false witness.

PAUPUSSES. Paupers.—Suffolk.

PAVED. Turned hard,—in the sense of *pan*.

PAWK. To act secretly, to prowl about for wreck. *Pawky-bag*, one for collecting fragments from a wreck.

Gael *beachdair*, a spy, explorer; *beachd*, observation; Manx, *peeikear*, prying, deserying.

PAWKY. An awkward, gawky, tall, two-left-legged lad or man.

In Scot. cunning, sly. In Cumb., too familiar, sly; A. S., *pæc-an*, to deceive. In the North, saucy, squeamish, proud, insolent. In Craven, proud. The Gael., *beachd*, with its compounds yields most of the above senses. Wel., *balc*, proud, arrogant. Flem., *pochen*, to boast.

PAWTS. Flat boards fastened on the feet to enable men to walk on mud, ooze.

From Fr., *patte* says Forby. Rather a cor. of *sup-ports*. *Paul*, N. Ang., to walk heavily or awkwardly, a stroke on the ground with the foot. *Pawt*, to potter about. Linc; Craven, *pause*, *pote*, and *pawt*, to kick with the foot. To *pote* the clothes off—to kick all off.—*Rays' N. C. Words*. *Paul*, a puny kick, Leeds; Sp., *pala*; Fr., *patte*, a foot, *paw*, or possibly from the Wel. *paw* that spreads, extends round.

PAX-WAX. The strong tendon in the neck of animals.

One of Sir T. Browne's words, and said by Forby to be in quite general use. Ray gives it his N. C. words, but of its derivation remarks he has 'nothing to say to it.' Forby calls it a 'crux etymologorum' which etymologists very reasonably do not care to come near. He adds Linnæus uses it in a passage of his writings which he has failed to trace.

The Pr. Parv. gives the right clue to the derivation '*Pax-wax*, synewe;' Ger., *flechse*, a tendon, nerve, sinew; *wacks*, in its sense of pliability, or of large growth. *Fax-wax* is the name in our North dialects. Old Fr., *fer-wex*; Gael., *feich*, sinew; *feitheach*, tendinous. In Sussex the tough tendinous strip attaching to the neck of veal is termed the *kaxy-waxy*. Barnes, in his Dorset dialect, has *keake-horn*, the windpipe, particularly of slaughtered animals. Brocket, in North Country words, has *fix-fax*, the gristle or tendoo of the neck. In Lanc. called *peawsweawse*; Fris., *pûhs*, *pees*, sinew; Isl., *wax*, said of bulk, bigness.

PEAGOOSE. Applied to one of an aspect both sickly and silly.

PECURIOUS. Minutely and scrupulously exact, Lat., *peculiaris*.

PED. I.—A pannier, a large capacious wicker basket with a lid. A pair of *peds* is commonly used swung one on each side of a horse, in which pork, fowls, butter and eggs are carried to market, and fish hawked about the country.

II. An osier basket with lid, containing 125 herrings and

upwards. A size of package largely used in the Yarmouth fish trade. A 'pot' is a similar basket, but smaller, see page 289.

I.—Formerly, in the days of small holdings, in very common use by East Anglian farmers and their wives. Numbers may still be seen in the markets of Norwich and Yarmouth. A *pedler* or *pedder* carrying his wares in peds answered to the pack-man of the North. In the minute troll of husbandry furniture given by Tusser—

'A pannell and wanty, pack-saddle and *ped*'

occur. *Peder*, a small farmer, Linc.

'In old maps of Norfolk, and still traceable in the ordnance maps, occurs the ancient Roman way, leading from the N.W. of Norfolk to Ixworth in Suffolk, known as the *Peddar's Way*, so named from its use by those itinerant traders. In the Pr. Parv. *pedde*, idem quod panere, calathus; (an osier basket), *peddare*, calatharius. *Pedder* revolutus, negociator, —*Cath. Ang.*—*Way*.

The deriv. may be from Lat. *pedes*, foot; Fr. *pié*, borrowed by the Wel. and A. S. In the South *peds* are called *dorsers*, from being carried on the backs of horses. *Ped-bellied*, pot-bellied, 'podge-guts,' forcible phrases, of which Shakspeare's—'A fair round belly, with good capon lined,' is a pleasant euphuism. See *Pod*.

II.—The hampers in which herrings are exposed for sale in our markets are always termed *peds*, and fishmongers frequently say, 'I've got a fine *ped* of herrings to day!'—*Baker's Northampt. Gloss*.

A haske is a wicker *ped* wherein they use to carrie fish.—*Original Gloss. to Spenser's Shepherd's Calendar*

I mvst have myn instruments hyddur. whyche are in the chyst in my chambre at Norwyche, whyche I praye you and Berney togedre joyntly, but not severally to trusse in a *pedde*, and sent them hyddur in hast—*Paston Letters*.

It. *pd* to the *pedders* of Norwyche for bryngyng of the seid spices hom to Hunstanton, ijs. viijd. *L'Estrange Household Accounts*, 1530.

PEE-WEE. Peaking and whining. *Pee-wic*, to peak and pine. Sc., *pees-weepy*, puny, whining. See *pie-wipe*.

O. Fr., *piauler*, to cheepe as a young bird, to pule, as a whelp.—*Colgr*.

PEG. To thump with sharp knuckles. A. S., *pyc-an*.

PEGGY. A slender poker, bent for raking fires.—*Wright's Prov.*

Dict. Wel., *pig*; Sw., *pigg*, a spike, pike.

PEG-TRANTUM. A great galloping, rantipole girl; a hoydenish mauther.

'Why called Peg, it is impossible to conjecture.—*Forby*. Verstegan, among his ancient English words, 1628, has *Piga*, a girle, a little wench, so yet used in the Danish,—heerof commeth our Northerne name of Peg, mismeant for Margaret.'

'The Dan., *pige*, a lass, (Sw., *piga*), has suffered that startling change in the sign of the Pig and Whistle, once the *Pige Washack* (the Maiden's Greeting) i. e., the Salutation of the Blessed Virgin!—*Miss Yonge's Christian Names*. *Trantum* may be a cor. of *tantrums*, (see *antrums*), or of *rantum*. Dut., *ranken*, pranks, tricks; Ger., *trandeln*, to toy, trifle. A slang phrase is—Gone to *Peg Trantum's*, i. e., dead.

PELTING. I.—Plucking the feathers from live geese, done in some parts of East Anglia, four times during spring and autumn. *Ploat*, to pluck feathers, Lake dial. Dut., *bloot*, naked, bare. II.—Petty, *paltry*, which see above. Gab. Harvey uses *paulting*.

Lat., *pellis*; Ger., *pelz*, a skin; *pelzen*, to peel.

Pelt, a word used in falconry for the skin of a fowl stuft, or the carcase itself of a dead fowl, to throw out to a hawk.—*Ray's North Country Words*.

A man took an eagle, *pelted* her wings and put her among his hens. Somebody came and bought this, and presently new feather'd her.—*L'Estrange's Æsop.*

But for thee to tender a trade of so invaluable a commodity to these *petting*, petty chapmen for thirty poor silverlings, it was no less base than wicked.—*Bp. Hall.*

PEND. To press or pinch, as 'the shoe *pends* here.' (Lat., *pondus*.) To incline or lean (Lat. *pendere*.)

PENNY-WAGTAIL. The Water Wag-tail.

PENSE. To be fretful. *Pensy*, uneasy, fretful; applied chiefly to children.

Probably derived, as Forby and Moor believe, from Fr., *pensif*, in its stronger sense of 'heavy, carking, sorrowful.'—*Cotgr.* The Gael. has *pian*, causing pain or vexation.

PETER FISH. The John Dory.

We often meet with it in these seas, commonly called a *Peter-fish*, having one black spot on either side the body, conceived the perpetual signature, from the impression of 'St. Peter's fingers,' or to resemble the two pieces of money which St. Peter took out of this fish.—*Sir T. Browne.*

PETERMAN. A fisherman. Applied in Suffolk to the crews of the Dutch fishing vessels, or Peter-boats; followers of the calling of St. Peter. *Peter-boat*, one built sharp at both ends.

PETMAN. The smallest pig in the litter. In Suffolk, a *rackling*.

O. Fr., *petit*, the whelp, cub, or puppie, the little one. *Raclures*, scrapings, remnants.—*Cotgr.*

PHIZ-GIG A wizened old woman, tricked out, 'like an old ewe dressed lamb-fashion.'

PICK CHEESE. The titmouse.

PICKLE. To glean a field a second time.

Sc., *pickle*, to pick up as a fowl, from Sw. *picka-ell*; Dut., *pikken*, to peck. *Pickle*, Sc., is also a grain of corn. *Pedgel*, Northampts. dial. is to pick and eat corn in the fields, *picking*, re-gleaning a field.

Pickling, in its sense of curing herrings, Mr. Wedgewood remarks, has the radical meaning of gutting or cleaning of the fish, with which the operation begins. The Fr. Pr. has '*pykyd*, purged fro filthe, *pykyn* or clensyn, or cullyn owte the on-clene.' A. S., *pyc-an*, to pick out. In the same way to *cure* fish is from Fr. *ecurer*, to scour, cleanse.

PICKLIN. Coarse linen used for seed bags, aprons, &c., from refuse pickings of flax.

PIE. The barrow or mound raised over pitted potatoes to protect from frost. In Suf. also called a *clam*. In Chesh. a *hog*.

PIE-WIFE. The pee-wit or lapwing. In Sc., *pee-wipe* and *pease-weep*, vide a memorable passage in Christopher North. Swed., *vipa*; O. Fr., *dixhuict*, lapwing.—*Cotgr.* Ger., *kiebitz*; Dut., *kiewit*.

PIGGLE, PINGLE. To be dainty over one's food, turning it over and over as a pig does with its snout. To boggle over. Cumb., *pyfle*, to pick delicately. Su. Goth., *pick-a*; Isl., *pikka*, to strike lightly, peck at.

Pingle, Sc., to labour assiduously without making progress. Northampts., to root up potatoes by the hand; Dan., *punge*, to fork out; Sc., *pike*, to cull, select, poke cautiously with the fingers; Wel., *piyadiad*, a culling; A. S., *pycan*, to peck.

Judging all to be clownes which be not courtiers, and all to be *pinglers* that be not coursers.—*Lyly's Euphuus*.

He filleteth his mouth well, and is no *pingler* at his meate.—*Topsell's Beasts*, 1607. (*Halliwel*.)

PIGHTLE, PICKLE. A small angular enclosure of land.

Apparently from its *piked* or pointed shape, of which the Wel. root is *pig*. A. S., *pycan*. Used in Mid Anglia. N. Ang., *pingle*.

PIKE-OFF. Begone, move off. Lanc., *pick*, to push sharply; Wel., *pigaw*, to prick, sting.

Isl., *pikka*, to rav; Sw., *picka*, to beat. N. Ang., *pouk*, to strike, push.

Nay, quod the Byshop, I defy the and thy sessauntys also, and wrech as thou art, *pyke* the out of my howse.—*Merie Tales of Skelton*.

Ye, but I bade hym *pyke* out of the gate,

By Goddes body, so dyd I.—*Skelton*.

PILCH. A flannel wrapper for a child, a skin coat, saddle cover.

A. S., *pyles*, a skin or fur garment; Isl., *pilz*, a shirt. '*Pylche*, pellicium.'—*Pr. Pv*.

A carman in a lether *pilche* that had whipt out a thousand pound out of his horse-tail.—*Nashe's Pierce Penitence*.

PILGER. A fish spear. O. Fr., *pille*, a javelin or dart, steel-headed.

It., *pigliare*, to catch, take hold of; Dan., *pigge*, a pike; Wel., *pill*, a shaft, stake; the Gael. has *spealg*, to split, break with violence, *spealgair*, one who splinters; *tilp*, to cast, throw; Ger., *pfeil*, an arrow; Sw. and Dan., *pil*, dart, shaft; Isl., *pill*, *pilar*.

PIN-BASKET. The youngest child in a family. Sc., *pock-shakings*.

PIN-FEATHERS. The incipient feathers before the birds are fledged, the roots. Fr., *penne*, a quill; Wel. and Bret. *pen* a beginning. 'He's only *pen-feathered*,' i.e. shabby. Fris., *pinnig*, slim, weak, lank.

A Metaphor (saith Aretius) taken from young birds, which offering to fly before the time, being but *pin-feathered* and not well fledg'd, fall down to the ground.—*Rogers' Rich Fool*.

The Irish Hobbie is a pretty fine horse, having a good head and bodie, indifferently well proportioned, saving that many of them be slender and *pin-buttocked*.—*Blundeville's* (a Norfolk Squire) *Horsemanship*, 1558.

PIN-PATCHES. *Pin-paunches*, the common perriwinkle, shell-fish.

By some called *pin-patches*, because the pin meat thereof is taken out with a pin or needle.—*Sir T. Browne*.

PIPPERIDGE. The barberry tree. Fr., *pepin*, a pip and *rouge* red.

PITTER. To grieve piteously. '*Pittering* and pining.' To make a low shrill noise. O. Fr., *pituitaire*, snivelling.

And when his *pittering* streames are lowe and thin.—*R. Greene*.

PLANCHER, PLANSHARD. A boarded floor. Fr., *plancher*.

Ye holys yat ben made for hand gunnys ben scarce kne hey fro ye *plawncher*.—*Paston Letters*.

Pursuing my journey I saw a good way before me a large building, that look't (methought) like some enchanted Castle, or the picture of ill-luck. It was all ruinous, the chimneys down, the *planchers* all to pieces, only the bars of the windows standing.—*L'Estrange's Quevedo*.

PLATE. The mould-board of a plough, Norfolk. Ger. *platt*.

PLASH. I.—A shallow pool. II.—To cut down an old and stubby quick fence, intertwining the lower branches. N. Ang., *pleach*, to bind a hedge. III.—To splash; Whitby, *plosh*.

I.—'Plasche or flasche, where reyne water stondythe.—*Pr. Parv.* Dut., *plas*

or *plash*, a puddle, a hole full of standing water. Hence *plashet* in the Essex Marshes, Plaistow, Pleshey, &c.—*Way*. *Ploshet*, a water meadow, Devon. Dut., *vlakke*, a lagoon; *flaque*, a puddle.

If thee drynks the halfe, thee shalt synde it no scoff.

Of terryble deathe thee wylt stacker in the *plashes*.—*Bp. Bale's King Johan*.

When making for the brook the falconer doth espy

One river *plash* or mere where store of fowl doth lie,—*Drayton*.

II.—Fr., *plesser*, to plash or plait young branches.—*Cotgr.* 111.—Sw., *plaska*. 'Cut vines and osiers, *Plash* hedge of enclosure.'—*Tusser*.

One *Cerdicus*, a *plashing* Saxon, that had revelled here and there with his battle-axe.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

Plesh, *plush*, to cut the larger sticks or *plashers* of a quickset hedge, nearly but not quite off, so that the sap may come up over the cut and throw out perpendicular shoots.—*Barnes' Dorset Dial*.

PLAW. To parboil: a boiling or bubbling up.

Pr. Parv., *plaw* or *plawynge*, bullicio, a boiling; *plawn*, as pottys, bullio, ferreo. *Ray*, in his S. and East County words, has 'To *play*, spoken of a pot, kettle, or other vessel full of liquor, i. e., to boil, *playing* hot, boiling hot.' The Wel. has *pludaw*, to make soft, tender; the Fl., *blaas*, a bubbling, blistering, boiling; *plooyen* to wrinkle, curl up; Dut., *blaas*, bubbles.

PLENNY. To complain fretfully, said of sick children. N. Ang., *plean*, *pleenin*. *Pleany-pye*, a prating gossip. Fr., *plaindre*.

PLOUNCE. To plunge with a loud noise. N. Ang., *plodge*; Dut., *plotsen*, to plunge; Sw., *plumsa*; Ger., *plätsen*. See *pash*.

PLW-JOGGER. A common term applied to the Norfolk ploughmen.

And in his catechising and preaching calls his parishioners * * *plow joggers*, bawling dogs, weaverly Jacks, and church robbers, (the Parson of Hepworth, Suffolk).—*White's Century of Scandalous Priests*, 1643.

At the rate of this thick-skull'd blunder-head, every *plow jobber* shall take upon him to read upon Divinity, law, and polittiques, as well as physick.—*L'Estrange's Æsop*.

PLUGGY. Short, thick, and sturdy.

Gael., *plub* and *pluc*, a bump, knot, bunch. Hence N. Ang., *plooky*, pimpled. Dut., *plukk* and *plug*. A *plonker*, aught unusually thick, Leeds dial.

PLUMPANDIKKALLA. Perpendicular.

PLUNKY. Thick, short, and heavy. Gael., *pocanta*, squat, thick; Ger., *plumpheit*, unwieldy, awkward.

POD. A fat protuberant belly. 'I'm 'a gitten kienda *poddy*.'

Podgel is dimin. of *pod* in Suf., where a man is said to run to *pod*:

Poddliit, plump, *pud*, the belly, *pudgetty*, fat-bellied, &c.; *pook*, the belly, Somerset; *pod*, the belly of a cart, Sussex.

Wel., *bog*, a swelling, rising up; Gael., *bronn*. Dan., *pude*, a pillow.

By God ye be a praty *pode*.

And I love you an hole cart lode,

Gup, Cristian Clowte, gup Jak of the Vale!

With Manerly Margery, mylk and ale!—*Skelton*.

PODGE. To stir and mix together—a hodge-podge. *Podge*, confusion, Perth. Fr., *pocher* to thrust, dig about with the fingers.—*Cotgr*.

And with their fingers *poched* out his eyes—*Du Bartas*.

To *poch* ground, to tread it when wet; gate-ways where cattle stand in winter, are said to be *poched*.—*Sir G. C. Lewis' Heref. Dial*. To *poach*, to tread soft ground or snow, as cattle leaving deep tracks—*Bartlett's Americanisms*.

POGRIM. A fanatic, canter, affecting over much sanctimony.

Pogram is an old cant word for the same. Fr., *foigner*, to dissemble. The Dan. has *frog*, a dolt, booby, our *fogy*.

POIT. An intens. of pert. Gael. has *bead*, forward, impudent.

POKE. A bag, sack, pouch, Isl., *poki*; A. S., *pocca*; Dut., *poke*.

Found in the egg-poke or lower part of the matrix.—*Sir T. Browne*.

POKE-CART, POKER. A miller's cart; *poke-day*, that on which labourers receive their allowance of corn.

POKE-SHAKKENS. The youngest pig of a litter. *Pokey*, very small.

Gael., *beag*, little; Wel., *bycan*, diminutive; *pokey*, N. Ang., saucy, inquisitive, from Gael., *puichean*, a little impudent fellow.

Recd. of Thoms. Hewer for 1xj of *poke* lambs xxxvs. vijd.—*L'Estrange's Household Accounts*.

Item pd for a *poke* of canvass to put in all the seed stuffe, lijd.—*Id.*

POLLAIN, PULLEN. Applied in E. A. to poultry in general, says Moor. *Poller*, a hen roost.

Sw., *pulla*; Fr., *poule*, a hen; *poulaille*, poultry.

The sleighty fox smale *polayl* doth oppress.—*Lydgate*.

Where *pullen* use nightly to perch in the yard.—*Tusser*

A pearle to one that findes it is both house and ground, sheep, cattell, *pullen* and all.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

Shall the great Housekeeper of the world provide for all his *pullen* and poultry in the yard; and is it likely that he will suffer his servants and children that are within doors in the meantime to starve? Who can imagine it?—*N. Rogers' Rich Fool*.

POLLENGERS, POLLENS. Pollard trees. Isl., *kollr*; Dut., *pol*, head, top.

POLLIWIGGLE, PURWIGGY, the tadpole, a little frog; also called from their shape pot-ladles. N. Ang., *pow-head*; Sc., *podle*; Northampts., *pollard*.

Isl., *pöddu*, frog; Wel., *broga*, frog; Fris., *podd*; *Pol*, in A. S. and Gael., is marsh, pool; A. S., *wickga*, worm—pool-worm—frog. *Pol* or *poly* is the second element in *tad-pole*. It occurs also in the old legendary '*Rowly-Poly*.' *Tad* is A. S. toad; Gael., *poll-cean*, tad-pole; A. S., *pol-yke*, marsh-frog.

'In that black and round substance, in a few day began to dilate and grow longer, after awhile the head, the eyes, the tail to be discernible, and at last to become that which the ancients called *gyrinus*, we a *porwigle* or tadpole.'—*Sir T. Browne*.

POLT. A hard driving blow. Manx, *polt*, a blow, stroke.

Gael., *buail*, to strike; Ir., *pall-tog*, a thump, blow; Fr., *pouiser*, to jostle, jolt, thrust; Sw., *bull*, to beat; Old Eng., *pulle*, to push. The Lat. has *cata-pult*, from *pulsare*.

POPPLE. To tumble about with a quick motion, as dumplings *play* about when the pot boils briskly. Ger., *poppelen*, to bubble; *popeln*, to play. Hence possibly is derived

POPLER, POPELER. '*Popelere*, byrd or schoveler, (schoveler-duck, *anas clypeata*, Lin.) *Pr. Pö*. The shoveler though widely distributed is by no means common in any part of England; a few, however, are known to breed regularly in Norfolk.

Amoyt the antiquary, editor of the 'Inventory of Sir John Fastolfe's Effects,' seems to have been perplexed by the following entry—

'Item ij clothes portrayed full of *popelers*.' He interpreted it to be *poplar* trees.

In the entries of provisions of *gyste* or in store, which appear in the L'Estrange Household Accounts of 1583, amongst pigeons, spowys, rabbits, pygges, &c., occurs—Item iij *popelers* of store.

POSE. A cold in the head, applied commonly to horses. A. S., *ge-pose*. 'Pose or sneke, *catarrus*.'—Pr. Pv. Corn., *páz*, a cough; Wel., *pas*.

Snevelyng in her nose,

As though she had the pose.—Skellon.

PHEEZY, FEEZY. I.—Fretful, querulous, irritable, sore.—Forby.

II.—*Pheese, feize*, to scare, fright, fill with alarm. III.—*Fease*, (sea term) to ravel out rope ends, &c. Some minor senses are given below.

Mr. Forby seems to be the only English glossarist who has fully given the four first meanings above. He adds no deriv. The term is not in *Moor's Suffolk Words*. The word is remarkable for the many aspects it wears in our dialects and dictionaries; for the conflicting interpretations attached to it, and for the neglect its etymology has experienced. It is a Shakesperian word moreover, one on which the commentators are at loggerheads. It may be worth while therefore to attempt to define its several meanings, and draw out their etymologies direct and cognate. These latter under heads I. and II. merge so into each other that it is difficult to draw any sharp line of partition.

Deriv. I.—Breton, *fae*, disdain, scorn; *fae-uz*, disdainful. Wel., *faiz*, loathsome, hateful; *feiziaw*, to detest, be disgusted at. Su. Goth., *fasa*, abhorrence, horror. Sw., *fastig*, hideous. Isl., *fussa*, to express antipathy. Dut., *vies*, nice, dainty, squeamish. *Viesheyd*, morositas.—*Kilian*. Fris., *piestg*, peevish (*Hettema*). Fr., *fúcher*; *fúcheux*, fastidious. O. F., *fasti*. It., *fastio*. Sp. and P., *haslio*, from Lat. *fastidiosus*.

II.—A. S., *fus*, ready, prompt; *fesian*, to drive away; *fysan, fysian*; *p*, ede; *pp*, ed, to drive, expel, send forth (arrows), send away, hasten; *fysan*, to rush, *fuse*, will drive away.—*Thorpe's An Ang.-Sax.*) Dan., *fuse*, to rush, be precipitate. Sw., *fösa*, to drive, push. Wel., *fyroysaw*, to act violently; *fysg*, impetuous; *fest*, speedy, hurried. Cornish, *fest*, quickly; *fye*, to drive away; *fys*, scattered; *fyas*, fled; *fysla*, to thresh. Isl., *fysa*, to stir up, excite; to work into a passion. Prov. Ger., *filzen*, O. H. Ger., *filan*, to rebuke, reprimand, scold; *filten*, to flay, curry. From Ger., *filzen*, to press (rather to comb out, to scold) says Diez, (under It., *feltro*,) 'comes the O. Fr., *fautrer*, to thrash, and perhaps the It., *ferzare*, to whip, lash, flog, spur on, chastise. Ger., *fetscr*, a rod, sword. *Filz*, Ger., apart from its sense of coarse, matted wool, has secondary ones of rough, rude, stingy, hence occurs *filz-geben*, to give a good scolding (employed by Luther), and some of the illustrations cited by Grimm, appear to include a drubbing.

III.—Dut., *veze*, fibres, threads. Ger., *fitsen*, to disentangle. Fr., *ficelle*, packthread. It., *filza*, a string of aught. Lat., *filus*, thread. See also Mr. Wedgwood's der. below.

Veze has a Scandinavian sense of hissing sound. Sue-Goth., *hwæsa*, sibilare.—*Ihre*. Isl., *hwæsa*. Serenius in his *Ang.-Sueh. Dict.*, Hamburg, 1734, has '*Veze*, ex. 'it came down with a veze' cum sibilo. A. S., *hwæosan*, Sui-Goth., *hwisla*, whence Eng. *hiss*, *whistle*, *wheeze*.

Michel in his *Etudes Philol. sur l'Argot* has a long article on *Vesse* (avoir la) to be affrighted. In the xv and xvi centuries he writes, 'on disoit dans le meme sens avoir *vezée* de paour.' He cites illustrations from Prov. Old French verse. Later the word *vesarde*, *vezarde* took rank beside *vezée*, which he adds continues to exist in the patois of Normandy. *Vezard* occurs in Brantôme and Rabelais as a great fear, apprehension. Michel remarks the occurrence in *Oudin's Seconde Partie des Recherches Italiennes et Francoises*, p. 577, of *Le Vezon*, 'il culo,' the buttock, with a mark noting its rare use. *Vesse*, *vezzic*, fille de joie, terme d'injure, is the next article in *Michel*. The phrase '*une bonne vesse*' occurs repeatedly in Brantôme Rabelais applies

the epithet 'ceste vessaille de deesses' to the goddesses of Egypt. *Colgrave's Fr. Dict.*, 1632, has *fesse*, a buttock, haunch (from Lat., *fissus*, *fissa*, cloven) and *fessé*, breeched, scutched, jerked, whipt, or beaten on the buttock; *vesse*, a bagpipe; jouer de la, to fizzle, the Dan. *fise*.

The *Dict. d'Academie Francaise*, 6th and last ed. has *fesse* (buttock) fig et pop, 'avoir chaud aux fesses,' etre saisi d'une grande peur—'il en a eu dans les fesses, qui a reçu quelque grand dommage,' * * * *fessé*, coups de main ou de verges donnés sur les fesses, 'il a eu la fessée,' ce mot est familier. *Fesser*, fouetter un enfant. *Vesse*, vent d'une odeur desagrecable qui sort sans bruit par derriere.

Le Roux's Dict. Comique, ed de Pampelune, 1786, has *Fesses*, dans le discours libre, pour deux grosses joues bouffies, ou pour de gros tettons, qui excedent la grosseur des tettons ordinaires. *Qui diable a donc placé votre nez entre deux fesses?* *Fessier*, pour le derriere, le cul. (*Fetzer*, Ger., has the same meaning.) *Vessée*, pour membre viril. *Vezes*, in the Romance dialect is 'Le dieu des jardins', Priape.—See *Roquefort*.

Florio's Italian Dict. (quoting from Torriano's ed., folio, 1688) has *fesso*, cleft, and (by metaphor) fem. pud. *verzo*, *verze*, any kind of wantonness, mignardizing, dandling, dalliance, toying, merry jesting, squeamish simpring, &c.; *vezzoso*, bucksom, gamesome, coy, pert, squeamish; *vescia*, a fysty fizzle.

Compare with the above the Arabic *faiz*, flying, escaping; *faz-qn*, *fiz-qn*, fear, flying in terror; *fasa*, a slight wind from the belly; *fasad*, violence, horror; *faww*, breaking wind gently. The Sanscrit has *bhai*, *bhi*, *bishan*, fear, horror. Under *fesse* in *Heraldry* a Lat. *fascia*, cingulum, ecutum, Minshew derives vel ab, Hebrew, *phasa*, quod nates, pudenda, significat. In Sanscrit *bhasad* has a similar meaning. *Grimm's Deutsches Wort.* has *fisel* penis, virga, Bremen *pesel*.

OCCURRENCE OF FEAZE, OR PHEEZE, in ENG. DICTIONARIES.—It is absent from *Sherwood's Eng.-Fr.*, *Dict.*, 1632. *Feasing*, (Sea Term) the ravelling out of a cable or any great rope at the ends.—*Phillips' World of Words*, 1678. Copied lit, in *Bailey's Dict.*, 1735. *Fease*, perhaps from the Sax., *faz*, hair; to untwist the end of a rope, to reduce any thing that has been twisted or woven to its first stamina, to beat, to whip with rods.—*Ash's Dict.*, 1775. This last, *Ash* seems to have derived from *Skinner's Etymol. Ling.*, Angl., 1671, who says *fease* or *feag*, is to lash, to beat with rods, from Ger., *fegen*, to sweep, to cleanse, or from *fricken*, to rub. Dr. Johnson gives the meanings of Phillips, (adding from *faiser*, Fr.) and of *Ash*, and gives, moreover, 'to comb, to fleece, to curry.' *Ainsworth's Lat. Dict.*, ed., *Morell*, 4to., 1808, has to *pheese* or *fease*, pecto, tondeo. *Webster*, 1848, has *feese*, a race—not in use—Barret. (This rare and extinct meaning may be from the Bret. *faeza*, to surpass, outstrip, vanquish, particularly in argument.) Also *phease*, to comb; *Feaze*, to untwist the ends of a rope. *Jamieson's Sc. Dict.* has *feeze*, to twist, turn round, hang off and on, also to work into a passion. Both words occur in *Richardson*, but with *Skinner's* etymol. given below.

Fese, terminus feciational a Fr. G. *fesse*, idem signante. *Fease*, flagellare, vergis cedere, parum deflexo sensu a Teut. *fegen*, verrere, pugnare, vel *fricken*, fricare, vel scabere ubi purit, item prurire.—*Skinner's Etymol.*, ffo. 1671.

[*Fese*, Chaucero est fugare, ab. A. S. *fesian*, idem notante *Lye*.]—*Junius and Lye*, Oxford, 1743.

ILLUSTRATIONS IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.—

And thereout came a rage and swiche a vise,

That it made all the gates for to rise.—*Chaucer's Knight's Tale*.

Thise Sarazins were so *fesid* that fled was Saladyn.—*R. de Brunne*, p. 193.

She for awhile was well sore *affesed*.—*Browne, Shepheard's Pipe, Eclogue I*.

Ile *pheeze* you in faith.—*Shakspeare's Tam. of Shrew, Line 1*.

[In the older play of 1594, written or adapted by Shakspeare, the word occurs in line 4

'*Slie*. Tilly, vally, by crisee Tapster Ile *fese* you anon.]

AG.—O no, you shall not goe.

AJAX.—And a be proud with me, Ile *phese* his pride, let me go to him.

—*Id. Troil. and Cress., Act 2, Sc. 3.*

HOST.—Thou'rt an emperour, Cæsar, keisar, and *Phæsar*, &c.

—*Id. Merry Wives, Act. I, Sc. 3.*

'Italis longè disjungimur oris.'

We are touzed, and from Italy *feased*,

'Ignavum, fucos, pecus a præsepibus arcent.'

Fease away the drone bees.

—*Stanhurst's Translation of Virgil, 1583.*

O peerles you or els no one alive,

Your pride serves you to *feaze* them all alone.

—*Partheniade apud Puttenham, p. 180.*

Come will you quarrel? I'll *feize* you, sirrah.

—*Ben Jonson's Alchemist, V, sc. 5*

'Marry, sweet love, e'en here, lie down; I'll *feese* thee.'

—*Beaumont and Fletcher, the Coxcomb, Act I., sc. 6.*

'But Bishop *Turbervil* recovered some lost lands, which Bishop *Voysey* had *vezed*; and particularly obtained of Queen Mary the restitution of the fair Manor of Crediton.—*Fuller's Worthies, Dorset.* (a side note in the first ed., folio 1662, to *vezed*, explains it 'driven away,' in the dialect of the West.)

DIALECTIC OCCURRENCE OF *PHEEZE*, *FEAZE*, &c. I.—IN WEST OF ENG. DIAL. GLOSS., Miss Palmer, in her *Devon* dial., has to *veass* away, to drive or frighten away, *vease*, to thrust, squeeze; *veaking*, fretful, peevish. Barnes, in his *Dorset* dial. has *veath*, funk; *veze*, to fidget about; *fess*, fussy, meddling. Jennings' *Somerset Dial.*, to *vaze*, to move about a room or house so as to agitate the air. Ray in his *Proverbs*, ed. 1737, p. 269, has 'I'll *vease* thee,' (i. e., hunt, drive thee) as communicated by a Somersetshire man.' Cooper's *Sussex* dial., *peeze*, to ooze out, as from a leaking cask, (this is the Wel., *pyz*, a state of running out.) *Halliwell*, has the following *West of Eng.* terms:—*Feage*, to whip or beat; *feaze*, to harass, worry, tease, dawdle, loiter, *feak*; a sharp twitch or pull; *feize*, to drive away; *pheeze*, to beat, chastise, humble; to *phease*, to pay a person off for any injury; *vaze*, to flutter about; *veze*, to run up and down, Glouc.; also, to drive away, to fly. [The common West Country phrase, '*pise*' (plague) take thee, is probably but a var. of *fease*; *pize*, West of Eng., is fretful, peevish.]

II.—IN EAST AND NORTH ANGLIA. In Prompt. Parv., 1440, *Fesyn*, 'idem quod *feryn*, supra; *feryn*, or make a ferde; *terreo*, *perterreo*.' For Forby, see ante. Grose has *fessing*, forcing a thing on one, Essex. Dickinson's *Cumb.* dial. *fizzer*, to punish, give pain, to put in a fix, (imported seemingly by its Irish settlers, the Ir., *paisighim*, I torment, cause to suffer.) *Whitby* dial., *fezzon*, to work up to the pitch of fighting, to get to blows, (from Isl., *fysa*, ante). N. Ang. and Sc., Jamieson has *fash* to tease, be weary of; *fasheous*, meddlesome, inquisitive, (from O. F., *fascher*, to displease, irk, disgust, molest, hurry, cloy, bring to a loathing.—*Colgr.*) *Fasart*, coward, (from the Su-Goth., *fasa*, ante) *Halliwell* has *feague*, to be perplexed, Linc. *Feak*, to fidget, be restless, Yorks. A flutter, said of lovers' anxieties, Linc. (the Ger., *feig*, faint-hearted.) To sneeze, Linc. *Frawzy*, frisk, pettish, Linc. (the Wel., *frawzawl*, full of motion.) *Fese* to frighten, make afraid. '*Fese* the cat away,'—*Urry*, p. 597.

'When he had etyn, and made hym at ese,

He thought Gye for to *fese*.'—*M. S. Cantab. ff ii, 38, f. 171.* [*Hal.*]

At this stage *feage* and *feak*, which we have seen to be confounded by Skinner and Ash with *Feaze*, and of which we have therefore raked together all dialectic occurrence, may as well be *feased*, i. e., 'scared' out of our way, *Feige* occurs also in Baileys' Dict., 1735, as 'to carp at;' and Ash in his Dict., 1775, gives as obsolete, '*feige*, to censure, carp at, (used by Gower.) The deriv. of the two words are A. S., *figan*, to be at enmity, A. S., *feogan*, to persecute, hate; Ger., *feige*, (Anglice *feak*) a blow; *fegen*, vulg. to chastise,

rebuke. Jam. Sc. Dict. has *feyk*, restlessness, the fidgets; *fyke*, to vex, to dawdle about, make a fuss, (the Irish *feicam*, to be in continual motion, to fidget).

Turn we next to the Commentators on the English Dramatists, when the word *feize* comes across their path.

Whalley's Notes to Ben Jonson, ed. 1811, has '*feize*, I'll drive you;' the word is common in our old authors, and as Mr. Upton adds, 'still used in the west of England.'—*Dr. Grey*

Gifford in his Notes to Ben Jonson, Vol. IV., 188, writes, 'This word does not mean to drive, but to beat, chastise, to humble, &c., in which sense (in the West of England) it may be heard every day. This dictum of *Gifford's*, a Devonshire man, has been adopted by most of the later commentators, *Collier*, *Singer*, *Knight*, &c., until the recent publication of the Cambridge and Globe Shakespeares, whose editors falling back on Dr. Johnson, render in their glossaries *pheeze*, to comb, fleece, curry. *Dyce* takes no notice of the word. *Knight* quotes *Gifford*, and also Johnson—'To *pheeze* or *fease* is to separate a twist into single threads. He derived this from Sir T. Smith's *de Sermone Anglico*, 1568, who gives 'to *feize*, in filâ deducere.'

Stanton, in his note *b* to Taming of the Shrew, disposes of *pheeze* in very summary fashion—'This phrase has been much discussed, but never satisfactorily explained.: It was equivalent exactly to our figurative saying—*I'll tickle you*, and had a meaning amorous or villainous, according to the circumstances under which it was uttered.'

The standard American ed. of Shakspeare, that by R. G. White, 12 vols., Boston, 1863, has the note:—'It is hardly necessary to remark "*pheeze*" means "worry." Sly means to tell the Hostess he will pay her off.'

We close with a recent Eng. etymol. dictionary, that by *Wedgewood*, a work of extreme value to all present and future students of our language. He gives to *fease*, *feize*, *pheeze* two main senses. I.—To whip, chastise, harass.—*Halliwell*, and II to ravel out the ends of a rope. Deriv. I.—Fr., *fesser*, to whip; Prov. Dan., *fikke*; Ger., *fitzen*; Dut., *veselen*, to whip a child; Dan., *fjicken*—*Kilian*. Prov. Eng., *feak*, a sharp twitch; Swiss, *fausen*, *fitzen*, to switch; *fitzer*, rods for children; *fiseln*, to switch to and fro.—*Stalder*. II.—Bav., *fisein*, to fiddle or twiddle with the fingers.—*Schmeller* Pl. Dut., *fissein*, to ravel out threads; *fiss*, *fissle*, a thread, fibre.—*Danneil*. Swiss., *fisel*, loose threads; Dut., *vese*, *vesel*, fibres, threads; Prov. Eng., *fassings*, any hanging fibres of roots.—*Halliwell*. *Fasyll* of a cloth, fractillus.—*Pr. Pv.*, Ger., *fasel*, to ravel. To *fease*, also to incite, from O. N., *fysa*, to instigate.

In the latest Dictionary of the English language, and the one apparently destined to supersede in general acceptance all its predecessors, that of the American *Worcester*, the word is thus given:—

- FEAZE. (Fr., *fesser*) 1.—To untwist as the end of a rope.—*Johnson*.
2.—To beat, to whip with rods.—*Ainsworth*. PHEESE, 1.—To comb, to fleece, to curry.—*Johnson*. 2.—To beat, to chastise, to humble.—*Wright*.
PHEESE, a fit of fretfulness, peevishness. [colloquial and vulgar, U. S.]

A collation of the foregoing definitions, derivations, and illustrations may, to borrow Fuller's humorous vein, render *feasible* an attempt to *feaze*, (in its sense of unravel) the Protean *phases* of this curious word, which has hitherto eluded the firm grasp of the philologist.

I.—*Feaze*, has the clear, distinctive, East Anglian dialectic senses, given by Forby, possibly originally Keltic, but more immediately borrowed from the Scandinavian and Frisic settlers. Almost obsolete in England, the word is still flourishing in a soil where so many other East Anglicisms have taken deep root, amongst our trans-Atlantic kindred. *Bartlett* in his *Dict. of Americanisms* has the following illustrations of the word in its irritable, apprehensive senses, and he gives no others:—

FREEZE. "To be in a *feaze*," is to be in a state of excitement.

Larcenie is the felonious taking away of another man's personal goods without his knowledge or insight, yet without making any assault upon his person or putting him into a *feaze*.—*Code of Laws of Rhode Island*, 1647.

Some years ago, we remember, New York was in its annual *feeze* about mad dogs.—*N. Y. Commercial Advertiser*, Oct. 16, 1848.

When a man 's in a *feeze*, there's no more sleep that hitch.—*Sam Slick in England*, ch. 2.

II.—It had a Wessex dialectic sense of 'scaring away,' which was also widely diffused in the Anglian districts. But is by no means clear that this involved the additional meanings of 'to beat, humble, chastise.' None of the West of England glossarists, as we have seen above, either give or imply those senses. Nor do any of our old writers who employ the term, suit the action to the word. The old N. Ang. chronicler, *Robert de Brunne*, says expressly that 'thise Sarazins were so lesid that fled was Saladin.' Fear is the only sense given by the E. Ang. compiler of the *Prompt. Parv.* (we may note here that the word does not appear in Hearne's index to the West of Eng. chronicler, *Robert of Gloucester*). With this sense tallies the old Scottish word, *fasarl*, cowardly. In like sense Chaucer uses it. Scare is the only sense in *afesed*, as employed by *Browne*, a Devonshire man, and by *Stanihurst*, a writer also from the west. *Shakspeare* only places the word in the mouths of the pot-valiant tinker, Christopher Sly; of the vain-glorious boaster, Ajax, the butt of Ulysses, Nestor and the other Grecian chiefs; and of that good fellow, mine Host of the Garter, in a 'huff-cap' scene with bully Hercules Falstaff, and his swash-buckler followers, Nym and Pistol. In all three instances there is a broad burlesque latent in *Shakspeare's* employment of the term, a running riot in those quibbling conceits to which our great poet was addicted.

What then was the sense in which *feaze* or *pheese* was used by the Elizabethan dramatists, whose hastily dashed off pages received so freely, and now yield back so vivid a reflex of the foreign influences, which in that era flooded the atmosphere of English literature and society? We conceive in that of *double entendre*, that beneath the Wessex *feaze* lurked but half concealed either the old French '*vezée*' of Brantôme and Rabelais, or uttered with a very slightly modified inflection of voice, broader allusions, such as—the '*fessé*,' 'breech-jerked, scutched, and whipt' of that coarse but racy dictionary of Cotgrave, which has made so many covert allusions of the play wrights of that age intelligible to ours. By the 'civet-wits, the travelled gallants and sweet bloods,' who thronged the pit and tiring rooms, or sat upon the stage 'prompting us aloud,' growls out surly Ben, such new-minted phrases, 'choice remnants of French and Italian' would be eagerly affected as 'the most received and gentile fashion.' 'Pick me out more of these play-particles,' cries out in ecstasy Amorphus in *Cynthia's Revels*, 'and (as occasion shall salute you) embroider or damask your discourse with them, persuade your soul, it would most judiciously commend you.'

The currency of the word upon our stage was but of brief duration. Like the dreary, far-fetched puns of modern burlesque, as the newly caught up allusions it enwrapped grew stale, it wore out. Had, however, the word *feaze*, uttered in the ears of a London audience, ever embodied an understood, legitimate, and recognised sense of 'to beat, chastise, and humble,' it is hard to see why a term describing menace, or assault and battery, 'stage business' of such incessant occurrence, alike in tragedy, comedy, and farce; deadly rapier fence, terrific broad-sword combat, or oak towelling—should have been so abruptly and peremptorily discarded.

III.—Of *fease* in its sense of to unravel, it is note-worthy that it has never found its way into our provincial glossaries, merely enjoying a traditional and galvanised existence in the pages of our dictionaries, each copying its predecessor. There are copious articles under *fasel* and *filzen* in *Grimm's Deutsches Wörterbuch*, which shew the terms to be of very early Teut. usage.

In conclusion, it is somewhat singular that the vitality of a word of such varied and distinct meanings, inheriting so many vigorous strains of etymological blood, should have become so feeble and attenuated in the English language. Under every heading given above, it seems to be nearly obsolete.

POT-DAYS. It was the custom formerly, even among very substantial farmers, to cook but three days a week, Sunday being one; on these, which were called *pot-days*, visitors were received.—*Wright's Prov. Dict.*

POTTENS. Crutches. *Pattens*, stilts, from Fr. *patin*. 'Potent or crotche.'—*Pr. Pv.*

Fr., *potence*, a gibbet, also a crutch for a lame man.—*Cotgr.*

POULTER-KNOTS. *Pull-tow-knots*, the knotty parts of cord.

PRALING. Tying a bladder with pease, or a tin kettle to a dog's tail, and then chivying him off.

Fris., *praal*, *prál*, a loud clamour, report, scream.

PRESBYTERIAN TRICK. A dishonest bargain, a knavish turn, Essex.

PREY. The herd of cattle driven from the common pasture and impounded. A fine is levied on those belonging to neighbouring hamlets to redeem them.—*Wright's Prov. Dict.*

Wel. *praid*, Corn. *praed*, a flock or herd, booty of cattle.

PRIG, PRIGSTER. Pert, coxcomb; *priggish*, conceited; from Dut. *priiken*, dare se spectandum, says *Richardson*.

Dan., *pragt*, parade, show; Sw., *pryda*, to adorn, set off, *prydlig*, elegant, *pragtig*, splendid, *præg*, balderdash, gammon.

For deriv. of *prig*, to steal, [see under *proctor* and *prog*.]

Cheatly.—Thou shalt not see the *Prigg*, thy brother, till thou 'shalt out jingle him.'—*Shadwell's Squire of Alsatia*.

PRIM. Very small smelts. Smelt fry, so called at Lynn.

Probably derived metaphorically from the Dan. and Su. Goth., *prein*; Isl., *prionn*, any sharp point, a needle, &c.; Fris., *prieme*, a stickle-back, a point.

Spirinches or smelt, in great plenty about Lynn; but where they have also a small fish, called a *priame*, answering in taste and shape a smelt, and perhaps are but the younger sort thereof.—*Sir T. Browne*.

PRITCH. A sharp pointed iron instrument. A *fold-pritch* is for making holes to receive the toes of hurdles. An eel-*pritch*, an eel-spear. A. S., *pricean*, to prick; also the sensation of throbbing in a sore. 'Ta boolk, an ta itch and ta *pritch*,' said of the irritation of a push or boil.

The least word uttered awry, the least conceit taken or *pritch*, the breaking in of a cow into their grounds, yea, sheep or pigs is enough to make suits, and they will be revenged.—*Rogers' Naaman the Syrian*.

Christians in generall will profess self-deniall, yet take *pritches* discontents.—*Id.*

PROCTOR. To hector, swagger, or bully. Lat., *procurator*.

From the *proctors* or sturdy beggars allowed by 1 Ed. VI. to travel round the country, gathering alms for the sick and lame in hospitals, &c. They became so great a nuisance as to render it necessary to put them down by stat. 39 Eliz., c. 4., which makes them rogues and vagabonds.—*Forby*.

PROG. To pry or poke into holes and corners. Abr. of *proctor*.

'*Prokkyn* or *styfty askyn*. *Procor*.—Pr. Pv. Isl., *prokka*, to scrape; Dan., *prakkeri*, beggary; Sw., *prackare*; Dut., *prakker*, a beggar, vagabond; Sc., *prig*, to importune, haggle, cheapen.

PROG. A curved spike or prog put forward to seize aught.

N. Ang., *prod*.

Isl., *brydda*; Dan., *brodde*, to stab, prick, skewer; Wel., *proc*, a thrust; Gael., *brog*, to goad; Ir., *príoca*, a goad; Northampts., *proggie*. Also a cant term for food—'I get my *prog* found.'

PUCKETS. Caterpillar nests, Suffolk. Wel., *buccai*, *bucciod*, a maggot.

PUDDER. Pother, bother, fuss, worry. Dan., *puddre*, to powder; Sw., *puder*; Dut., *poeder*.

Wedgehead derives from *puddle* in the sense of troubled water mixed with dirt, preventing one from seeing through. Is it not rather a sense of clouds of dust smothering and choking alike the nostrils, throat and vision?

Oh, yes, those were his own, this is God's; those he made no bones of, but this was that which had made all this *pudder*.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

What a *pudder* have those Eatonists and Pointers (as they call them) made in Norfolk of late.—*Id.*

So long as he who has but a teeming brain, may have leave to lay his eggs in his own nest, which is built beyond the reach of every man's *puddering* pole, why should the ears of all the neighbourhood be dinn'd and grated with the cackle, as if the whole world besides were all weasils and polecats, vermine and lurchers?—*Fairfax*.

'In the sermons of Barrow, who certainly intended to write an elevated style, and did not seek familiar, still less vulgar expressions, we constantly meet such terms as to rate, to snub, to gull, to *pudder*, dumpish, and the like, which we may confidently affirm were not vulgar when he used them.'—*Archbp. Trench's English, Past and Present*.

PUDDING. A stuffed cushion placed round a child's forehead when first trusted to walk alone. Fr., *boudin*. Dan. has *bude*, pillow.

Examples may be seen in Rubens' charming pictures of his children.

PUDDING-PYE-DOLL. The dish called toad in the hole, meat boiled or baked in a crust.

PADDUCK. A toad. Isl. and Sw., *padda*; Dut., *padde*; A. S., *pad*, a toad. In Essex also a frog. '*Paddock*, tooode.'—*Pr. Pv.*

Brockett, in his *North Country Words* writes '*paddick* or *paddock*, a frog, never a toad.' Danish and Ger. prov. Glossaries give to *padde* the meaning of both frog and toad.

PUGGLE. To stir the fire, Essex. Ger., *puken*, to poke; Dan., *pukke*, to stamp; Lat., *pugio*, a dagger.

PUGGY. I.—Thick, warm weather. II.—Muggy weather preceding a tempest. *Puggy* hands, dirty, clammy. I.—Pl. Dut., *puddig*, thick, and see *Podge*. II.—Dan., *pukke*, to threaten.

PULK. A small pool, a muddy pond; the sea-water lakelets left on the beach by the ebbing tide. A. S., *pul*; Gael., *pollag*, a little pool; Wel., *phoca*; Isl., *pollr*. '*Polke* of watyr, vortex.'—*Pr. Pv.*

It is easy for a woman to go to a pond or *pulke* standing near her door, (though the water be not so good) rather than to go to a fountain of living water further off.—*Rogers' Naaman the Syrian*.

Congers * * in frosty weather left in *pulks* and plashes upon the ebb of the sea.—*Sir T. Browne*.

PULKY. Thick, fat, chubby, short. Dan., *pludsfed*, chubby. Gael., *pollach*, lumpish.

PULTHY. Dirty, muddy. Gael., *poll*, mire; Wel., *bawlydd*, filthy.

PUMMACE. The mass of apples mashed under a stone roller, before placing between layers of straw on the cyder press. Fr., *pommé*, cyder.

Pummy, the dry substance of apples, after the cider is expressed.—*Dorset*.

PUNDER. To be on an exact equipoise. *Pundle-tree*, the cross-bar to which horses are fastened to draw ploughs or harrows. Isl., *pundari*; A. S., *pundern*, a balance. '*Punder*, librilla.' *Pr. Po.* Sw., *pyndare*, steelyard.

Punder, a cross-bar attached to cart shafts, to keep it when loaded horizontal. To unload, the word is given '*unpunder*,' when the bar is withdrawn and the cart falls backwards.—*Pundle-tree*, the cross bar to which horses are attached to draw ploughs or harrows.

PUNGLED, PINGLED. Shrivelled as wheat from mildew, heat, &c.

In the sense of *pricked*, collapsed. Lat., *pungere*. See under *piggle*.

PUR, PROTER. A poker. '*Pur* the fire.' N. Ang. *por*. Sc., a *purring* iron; Gr., *pur*, fire; Dan., *purre*; Fris., *porre*, to poke or stir up the fire; Dut., *porren*.

PURDY. Surly, ill-humoured, self-important. 'A fare so big and so *purdy* tha's no speaken tew em.'

Dan., *pur*, crisp, ruffled, curled up; Scot., *pirlie*, crisp; '*pirlie* fellow,' one who is very difficult to please; Wel., *pyr*, a crest. *Pyry*, or storme.—*Pr. Po.*

PUSH. A boil, swelling, inflammation.

Lat., *pustula*; Dan., *puse*, to swell up; Wel., *pws*, that is expelled.

But at length, in the place where the sore had been, which had dispersed, there arose a sort of *push* like what boys sometimes have. It had a black head, so was angry that looking upon it almost hurt it.—*North's Lives*, iii. 57.

PUSSELE, PUZZLE. A very dirty drab, a filthy slut.

Fr. *pucelle*; Grisons, *purscella*, a damsel; It., *puzza*, stink; *puzzola*, pole-cat; or rather from the Wel., *bawzyn*, a dirty, nasty creature; from *bawaiz*, the probable root of the Lanc., *pousement*; Corn. Brit., *pwyo*, refuse.

PUTS. Mole-warps or hills. Wel., *puttaw*, to push forth.

PUTTOK. A kite, a cormorant, ravenous fellow. Lat., *buteo*;

Wel., *barcut*. '*Puttok*, bryd, *milvus*.'—*Pr. Po.*

'A *puttocke* set on a peach, fast by a falcon's side.'—*Gascoigne*.

Such ravening *puttocks* for victuals so trim.—*Tusser*.

'The hen clocketh her chickens, I would have clocked and called them by my preaching, the hen shieldeth them and fighteth for them against the *puttock*.'—*Nashe's Christ's Tears*.

PUY. A pew, the front of an edifice.

Its proper form from the Dut. *puye*, a pulpit, reading desk, or praying-puyc, (hence our Eng. *pews*, copied from the Dutch,) the place at Town-halls whence proclamations are read. Lat., *podium*, a balcony; O. Fr., *puyc*, an elevation; *pue*-fellow, a school comrade at the same desk. Fl., *puyc*, the lower part of a front.

He hired a desperate knave to laye stones of great wayghte vpon the roufe beames of the temple, ryght over his prayenge *pewe*, and to lete them fall vpon hym to hys viter destruccyon.—*Bale's Eng. Votaries*, p. II.

What carking care goeth with riches! A poore cobbler very merry in his song, while poore, having a bag of money cast into his *puyc*, ceased to sing. At last he that threw it him in came and askt him why he was so sad all on the sudden? He suspecting who it was, threw him back his bagge, and bid him take it, for he could never bee merry with it.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

QUACKLE, QUAGGLE. To suffocate or choke. Dan., *qværk*, throat, *Querkened*, suffocated.—*Craven*. *Quocken'd*, Northamp. *Querking*, grunting. *Exmoor*. Dut., *quaaken*, to croak.

QUADDLE, QUODDLE. To coddle, to boil gently. Sw., *quabblig*, squeamish.

QUADDY. Very broad, short and thick in person. Ger., *quader*, broad, square-hewn, *quab*, squab.

QUAIL. I.—To curdle, said of milk, custards, &c. II.—To ail.

I.—Ger., *quark*, curds; Dan., *quarre*, crusting of small pieces of ice on water; It., *quagliare*, and Fr. *cailler*, to curdle. II.—N. Ang., *quail*, to sicken, faint, to *queal* away, to die away, Devon; Ger. *quelen*, to languish; *qual*, pain; Dut., *quaal*, amiss, gone wrong; Dan., *quale*, to choke; also to torment.

They yelleden as fendes don in helle;

The dokes crieden as men wold hem *quelle*.

—Chaucer's *Nonnes' Tale*.

Then, I say, you shall be sicke at the stomacke of all these, and vomit your sweet morsels, and all your *quails* and objects of sufficiency shall come out at your nostrills, yea, vanish before the sufficiency of Christ.—D. Rogers' *Naaman*.

* * Omitted under *Quackle*, vide page, ante.

He yozeth, and he spekethe thurgh the nose,

As he were on the *quakke*, or on the pose.

—Chaucer's *Norfolk Reve's Tale*.

QUAIRE. A quire of paper. Old Fr., *cayer*. Isl., *kver*, a little book.

QUAVERY-MAVERY. Undecided, hesitating. 'Quavyn, as myre, *tremo*.'—Pr. Pv. Quagmire in O. E. is *quavemire*.

'Somme peple calle an earthe *quave*, by cause they fele ther the meve and *quave* vnder their feet.'—Caxton's *Mirror of the World*.

Some loke *strawry*,

Some *cawry mawry*.—Skelton.

'But it was a great deepe marrish or *quavemyre*.'—North's *Plutarch*, 411.

QUEACH OR SQUEACH. A rough, bushy plot left untilled, full of *quicks*, shrubs or brambles. *Queachy*, wet, boggy. A. S. *cuacian*.

Ger., *queck*; Dan., *quik*; and *quas*, brushwood; Dut., *queek*.

Which in fat Holland lurk among the *queachy* slashes.—Drayton's *Polyolbion*.

QUEEZEN, QUIZZLE. To smother or choke. Dan., *quæle*; Sw., *quäfla*, to choke; Prov. Dan., *quase*, to smother with mud.

'*Quellyn* or *querkyn*, suffoco,'—Pr. Pr. Fris., *querdzed*, choked.

Quisey, confounded, N. Ang. L. Ger., *quetsen*, to shake violently.

The spirable odour and pestilent steam ascending from it put him out of his bias of congruity, and as true as the truest Latin of Priscian would have *queazened* him.—Nashe's *Lenten Stuff*.

QUICKLINGS. Young insects.

QUINNY. Not quite, not just yet.

QUONT. A pole to push a boat or barge forwards, used by the wherry-men in the inland navigation. Lat., *contus*.

RAB. A wooden beater to bray the ingredients of mortar.

Fr., *rabat*, the staffe wherewith plaisterers beat their mortar.—*Coltr*.

RACK. A rut, the channel made by a cart-wheel. Isl., *rak*, furrow, streak; *reika*, to roam, stroll. Dut. *rakje*, part of the road; Gael., *rathad*, a road.

Dan., *rat*, a wheel, whence Sw., *ratta*, a path; Ger., *ruttelein*, jolting of a vehicle.

Rack, in Mid. Ang. and Wesssex dial., a narrow path in woods for rabbit shooting. *Rake*, Cumb., a mountain track across a steep; to follow in line, as sheep do. *Rack-hurry*, the track or rail for unloading coals at a wharf, N. Ang. *Rake*, a streak, Craven, *Rack-cutting*, trimming the underwood in forest bye-paths, Northampts. A sheep-*rak* or walk, a cattle *rak*, Scot. *Een rak wegs*, part of the way, Dut. *Raik*, the direction the clouds are driven by the wind.—*Ettr. Forest*.

RACK. Driving mist. Craven., *rag*; A. S., *reac*; Isl., *hregg*,

vapour. Also A. S., *racu*; Isl., *rekia*, rain, damp. See *roke* and *rafty*. *Rag-rhyme*, hoar frost, Linc.

'As Phebas doeth, at mydday in the southe,
Whan every *rak*, and every cloudy sky
Is voide clene.—*Lydgate*'

RACK. weeds, refuse, sea-weed flung ashore.

Sw. *Vrak*; Dan. *Vrag*, wreck, refuse; Dut. *rak*, water-weeds. Isl. *hraki*, vomit.

RACKLE. I.—Rash, hasty. II.—Noisy talk.

Rackle, rude and disorderly, N. Ang.; *rackle-deed*, loose conduct, Cumb.; *rachlin*, hare-brained; *rackel*, rash, Sc.; Isl., *rakkliga*, quick, bold. II.—Gael., *racail*, noise like that of geese and ducks; Fr., *raclure*, a rasping, grating; Su.-Goth., *racla*; Ger., *rockeln*.

And then to wyving be thou nat *racle*.—*Lydgate*.

He came in at the chrych dore, as the dyрге was doo,

Rynnyng, roryng, wythe hys *rakyls*, as devilles semyd to doo.—*Lydgate*.

RACKS. A kitchen fire-place, Essex. A. S., *reac-an*, to smoke.

RAFF. Refuse, rubbish. **RAFFMEN.** Chandlers. The term grocers and *raffemen*, occurs in old Norwich records.—See Nares.

Old Fr. Proverb, '*Il ne luy lairra rif ne raf, rifle ne raffe*.' He will strip, reave, or deprive him of all.—*Cotgr.* Dan., *rips-raps*, tag-rag.

'To rumble rime in *raffe* and *ruffe*, yet all not worth an hawe.—*Gascoigne*. *Raff*, literally, is what is swept up; Ger. *raffen*; Isl., *hrafla*.

Fleand fast thei thrist, and fled bothe *rif* and *raf*.—*Robert de Brunne*.

RAFFLIN or **RASSLIN-POLE.** I.—The baker's pole with which the embers are spread to all parts of the oven. In the North a *fruggen*. II.—Brushing walnuts off the trees is called *raffling* or *resselling* them. See *ressle*.

I.—Wel., *rhavu*, to spread out; *rhaw*, a shovel; *rhaviaw*, to spread with a shovel. II.—A. S., *reafiac*; Isl., *hrifling*, spoil, booty. See also under *Raffling*.

RAFFLING. Idle, unsteady.

Raffertory, masterful. *Raffe*, to play with dice, N. Ang. *Raffle*, to dissipate intemperately, talk confusedly, Whithy.

Ger., *raffeln*, to snatch away; Isl., *hraffi*, rapacious; *raf*, to roam about. A. S. *reast*; Sw. *raffel*, to gamble; Dut., *raffen*, to rive, rob.

RAFTY. I.—Fusty, stale. *Raffiness*, staleness. II.—Misty and damp, 'raw and *rafty*.' 'Ta fare kienda *rafty* this morning. Dan., *rag*, sea vapour; Dut., *rag*, cobweb. Sc. *raf*, a flying shower.

I.—*Rafty*, rancid, Dorset; *raсты*, Somerset; *raisty* and *reasty*, in other dial. *Raffie*, rank, Sc.; Ger., *reiflig*, ripe, mature; Wel., *rhyaeth*, over-ripe.

RALLY. I.—A projecting ledge in a wall built thicker below than above, serving the purpose of a shelf. II.—A coarse sieve for peas or horse beans. Sc., *ralis*, nets; Fr., *raiz*, nets; Wel., *rhwyll*, lattice-work.

I.—Ger. *rille*, a chamfer, small furrow; Wel., *rhwyll*, a mortise, fretwork; Dut., *rillen*, to shiver. II.—Dan., *ralle*; Fr., *raller*, to rattle; *Rallar*, Sp., to grate; Lat., *radiculare*.

RAMP. I.—To prance, romp. II.—To grow rapidly and luxuriantly. III.—To bend, crook a piece of iron to adapt it to the wood work of a gate 'Ta oont dew sooin, yo' must *ramp* it.'

To *ramp* and *reave*, to get by fair or foul means. Rampantous, overbearing, Linc., *rampage*, to be riotous. *Ramp*, to sprain; Cumb.

I. and II.—Su.—Goth., *ram*; Isl., *rammr*, stout; Dan., *ram*, rank; A. S. *rempend*, rampant, headlong; Wel., *rhamant*, a rising, soaring up. III.—It., *rampa*, a claw; Ger., *krampf*; Eng., *cramp*.

'Although she were a lusty bouncing *rampe*, somewhat like Gallimeta or Maid Marian.'—*Gabriel Harvey*.

RANCH. To scratch deeply and severely, as with a nail.

Dut., *wrongk*, distortion; Bav., *renken*, to tear; It., *dirancare*, to tear out.

'Not a weed sprung up but ere it aspired half to his growth, by them it was weeded and ravenously *rauncht* up.'—*Nash's Christ's Tears*.

Griffade, a *ranche* or clinch with a beast's paw.—*Cotgr.*

RAKE. To gad or ramble in mere idleness, without any immoral implication. Applied often to truant children.—*Forby*.

'*Reyke*, or *royt*, ydylle walkynge abowt.'—*Pr. Pv.*

Rake, to walk, to range or rove about, N. Ang.; Su.—Goth., *reka*, to roam.

RAND. I.—A fleshy piece of beef cut from the rump, loin, or leg, II.—A strip of leather in the heel of the shoe, turned over and seamed to strengthen it.—See *rond*.

A. S., *rand*, margin, edge, round; Isl., *rond*, *raund*; Su.—Goth., *rand*; Sp., *randa*, rim. See quotation from Fuller under *Weaver's Beef*.

RANDAN. The yield of a second sifting of meal.

Possibly from the Fl., *rondom*, roundabout, an old mode of sifting the bran, the first quality of which is the randan, being the working it round and round in large sieves; or it may be the A. S., *randun*, running down.

RANNY. The shrew mouse. *Sorex araneus*, Lin. Fr., *mus-araigne*; Isl., *rani*, snout.

RANTER. I.—A tin or copper can in which beer is brought from the cellar, and poured into drinking vessels. II.—To sew up a rent in a garment, Fr., *rentraire*.

Rant, to drink, Craven; *ranty*, tipsy, Sc.

I.—The Wel. has *rhanitor*, to distribute, to dispense. The der. seems rather the O. Fr., *rentonner*, to tun the second time.

RAP AND REND. 'A spend everything 'a can *rap and rend*, i. e., all he can seize and lay hands on.

Dan., *rapse*, to pilfer, filch; Ger., *rappen*, to snatch up; Sp., *rapar*, to plunder; A. S., *rendan*, to tear; Fris., *renda*.

Whatsoever he could *rap or rend*, he confiscated to his covetous gut.—*Nash's Pierce Penilesse*.

Though he should set all to saile which he could *rappe and rend*.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

For many years of his life all that he could (as they say) *rap or run* went the same way.—*North's Lives*, iii., 291.

RAPE AND SCRAPE. Synonyms of the last. *Rape*, haste, Old Eng.—See Coleridge's Dict. O. Norse, *råpa*, cursitare.

RASP, RESP. To belch. '*Rospynge* or bolkyng, *eructatio*.'—*Pr. Pv.* O. S., *ropizon*; Dut., *rispen*; Su.—Goth., *rapa*.—O. Fr., *respirer*, to vent, gasp.—*Cotgr.*

RASSELS. The land-whin, Suf. '*Rastyllow wede*, *resta bovis*.'—*Pr. Pv.* Gael., *ras*, a shrub.

The petty whinne or *rest-harrow* is commonly called *aresta bovis* and *remora aratri*; in Fr., *areste bæuf*.—*Gerarde's Herbal*, 1633.

Rest-Harrow, arrest harrow; Fr., *arrete-bæuf*, from its strong matted roots impeding the progress of plough and harrow. *Ononis arvensis*, Lin.—*Prior's Pop. Brit. Plants*.

RATHER OF THE RATHEREST. A very little too much or too

little. Applied to insufficient cooking of meat; sometimes to one half drunk.

RATHE-RIPE Coming early to maturity. A. S. *rath*, quickly.

Let me mention another real loss ** the comparative *rather* stands alone, having dropped on one side its positive *rathe*, and on the other its superlative *rathest*. *Rathe* having the sense of early, though a graceful word ** embalmed in the Lycidas of Milton—

‘And the *rathe* primrose, which forsaken dies.’

might still be suffered, without remark, to share the common lot of so many words which have perished, though worthy to have lived; but the disuse of *rathest* has left a real gap in the language, and the more so seeing that *liest* is gone too.—*Archbp. Trench*.

He reigned fiftene yere, and died alle to *rathe*.—*Robert de Brunne*.

Open your eyes, ye *rathe-ripe* invaders of God's chair, and see your Saviour in his younger years, not sitting in the eminent pulpit of the doctors, but in the lowly floors of the auditors.—*Bp. Hall*.

RATTOCK. A great noise. Ger. *rattern*, to crash, make a noise.

RAUM. To sprawl. Ger. *raumlich*, filling space, wide.

RAVARY. A violent raving fit of passion.

RAWINGS. After grass, eddish, the coarse feed of the marsh lands.

Wel., *rhaw*, *rhawag*, abounding with growth, what grows out; *rhaws*, rank, fertile; or it may be a cor. of *roughings*. ‘*Raweyne*, hey, (*rawen*, Pr. Pv.) *fenun serotinum*.—*Cath. Ang.*—See *rowen*.

RAZOR, RIZZER. A small pole, used to confine faggots.

Gael., *ras*, a rod or twig; Dan., *riis*, faggots, rods; A. S., *hris*; Isl., *hriis*; Ger., *reis*; Sw., *ris*; Wel., *gwureg*. *Ryse*, brushwood used in hedging, N. Ang.; *stake and rice*, a wattled fence. *Rice*, pease, straw, Norf. *Pea-rice*, pea-sticks, Chesh.

REAVE. To unroof a house, to blow the thatch off. A. S., *reafian*.

Reuvv, to unroof, Cumb.

RED-INKLE. Red tape; Fr., *lignel*.

Inkle, an inferior kind of tape.—*Brockel's N. Ang. Words*. ‘Thick as *inkle-weavers*’—very intimate, Cumb.

RED-ROW. Barley just before it is ripe for cutting.

REE. A river or flood. ‘All is in a *ree*,’ i. e. overflowed, Essex.

Ree, Sc., is half drunk; Wel., *rhe*, a swift motion, current; O. Fr., *riu*, a deep rain, gullet of water.

REED ROLL. A thicket of reeds on the brink of a broad. *Reed*, Suf, a wood, or a woody piece or strip of land. Squeech, shaw, dingle, ‘mean nearly the same thing.’—*Moor*. ‘*Reed Pytte*,’ or *fenne*.—*Pr. Pv*.

REEN, REIN. To drop the head as ripe corn.

Gael., *cron*, to droop, *crom*, to bend down; Wel., *crym*, to stoop, bend; if from the action of *reining in*; Lat., *retinere*; Fr., *rêne*.

‘Crist hymself for sothe bygan.

He may *rene* both boure and halle.’—*Lydgate*.

BEER, RERE. Meat, ‘too much underdone.’ When cooked enough ‘it is home-done.’ A. S., *hrere*, raw. ‘*Rere* or *nesche*, as eggys *mollis*.’—*Pr. Pv*.

REESTIE. Rancid, rusty. ‘*Reest*, as *flesche*, *rancidus*.’—*Pr. Pv*.

May be a cor. of the L. Ger., *roestigh*, rusty, or the quot. from *Bp. Hall* may supply a clue to the der. *Reest* is the skin of bacon, possibly from the Isl., *hreistr*, a scale.

He was of an adust swarth choleric dye, like *restie* bacon, or a dried scate fish.—*Nash's Have with you to Saffron Walden*.

So I could pluck a crow with Poet *Martial* for calling it *putre halec*, the scald rotten herring; but he meant that of the fat, *reasty Scottish* herrings, which will endure no salt, and in one month (bestow what cost on them you will) wax rammish if they be kept.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

Or once a week, perhaps for novelty,

Reez'd bacon-soords shall feast his family.—*Hall's Satires*, b. iv.

REFFEJ. Refuse. Picking out sheep is in Suffolk to *reffej* 'em

RELEET. A meeting of three or four different roads.

Isl., *leita*, to guide, direct, resort to, A. S., *ledan*.

'**REMEMBER.** Parson Melham—and 'pray Sir, drink about,' a Norfolk phrase.—*Bailey's Dict. of Cant Words*, 1776.

RENDER. To give a finishing coat of plaster to a wall, Fr., *rendurcir*, to re-harden, *renduire*, to smear afresh.

RENNIBLE, RANNILY. Fluent, voluble. Used by Bishop Hall. A. S., *rynan*, to roar; Isl., *hrina*, to cry out. The A. S. has also *rennan*, to run, flow.

RESH. Fresh, recent. Carrots just pulled up and moist are said to be too *resh* for cattle, and more wholesome when a little *clung*.

Ger., *resche*; Fr., *rêche*, harsh, rough, sour; Isl., *hress*, fresh, recent.

RESSLE. Ripe walnuts are brushed off the tree with a long *resselling* pole.

A. S., *hris*, tops of trees, *hriscian*, to shake, vibrate, rustle; Pl. D., *russeln*; Dut., *ritselen*; Prov. Ger., *rasseln*, to shake; Scot., *reissil*, a loud clattering noise, a blow, stroke; Su.-Goth., *ris-a*, to beat with rods.

BESTIE, REASTY. East Anglian forms of *restive*. Lat., *re-stare*. 'A horse is said to run *rusty*, i.e., restive. *Reast*, to take offence, Linc.

If their Masters see them, how nimble at a start are they, but if their backs be turned, how *resty* and lazy?—*D. Rogers's Naaman*.

Now, sirs, knowing your bellies full of Bishops *dobbs*, I am sure your bones would be at rest: but, wee'le set vp all our *rests*, to make you all *restie*.

—*Nashe's Pap with a Hatchet*, 1589.

RET. To soak, macerate in water. *Retting* pit, a pond or ditch for soaking hemp; Su., *röta*, to soak, steep; Fl., *reeten*, to hickle or bruise flax. *Ret*, a wart, Norf; Dut., *vrat*.

Retting is the process of steeping flax in water to separate the fibres. 'Rettyn tymbyr, hempe, or other lyke, *rigo*, *infundo*.'—*Pr. Pv*.

RHENOISTER. A rhinoceros, 'called by the Dutch settlers at the Cape, *rhenoster*.'—*Forby*.

RIB-WORT. The common water-cress, *Coronopus Ruellii*.

Rib, A. S., is hound's tongue.

RICKY. Masterful. Lanc., *rick*, to scold; Wel., *rhoci*, to grunt, growl; Isl., *rik*, imperious; Dut., *ryk*; Swed., *rik*; Plat. D., *riek*, dominion.

RIDE. To 'ride grub,' is to be out of humour, sulky.

RIE. The raised border on a stocking top.

RIFLE. A strop used after the whetstone for sharpening a scythe. Generally hung on the sned of the scythe.—*Moor's Suf. Words*; Ger., *riffeln*, to polish; Su.-Goth., *rifwa*, to rub.

'A brusk sythe and grass sythe with *rifle* to stand.'—*Tusser*.

In other Eng. dial. a *rifle* seems to be a bent stick attached to the butt of the scythe handle, to collect the corn or grass into the swathe, and is called a bale. —See *Halliwell* and *Wright*.

RIG. A ridge in ploughed land, a stocking rib. A.S., *rig*, the back.

Isl., *kriggr*; Sue-Goth, *rygg*. *Riggish*, wanton; Fr., *rigoler*.

A sheep laid on its back and unable to turn itself, is said to be *rigg'd*.

RIG, RIDGIL. *Ridjillon*, an animal half castrated. Gael., *ruig*; Isl., *rog*.

RIGHT. Obligation. 'I've no *right* to pay so much.' 'He have a *right* to pay his debts.' 'He have a *right* to be hung, and don't ought to be pardoned. *Right*, very, as *right* rotten. *Right-down*, down-right; *right-on*, positively, straight-forward. *Right-up*, upright; *right-away*, straight off, directly. The three latter have been transplanted to the United States. *Right-out*, directly, completely; *right-up-eared*, prick-eared, pert, saucy.

RILE, ROIL. To stir up liquor and make it turbid by moving the sediment; hence to irritate and rouse to anger.—'dont you *rile* the water.' 'A was lamentably *riled*.' Common in America.

Isl., *rugl*, to stir up, ruffle, discompose; Su Goth., *rulla*; C. Brit., *ruila*; 'Ryall of foom or berme, spuma.'—Pr. Pv. 'Riall of wyne, fome, brouée, fleur.'—Palsg. A *riled* complexion is one coarsely ruddy.

Rile, to vex, annoy, Cumb.; *roil*, to play the romps, frolic, Whitby. *Rile*, to render turbid, disturb, vex.—Brockett's *North Country Words*. *Rool*, to ruffle, rumple clothes, Craven. *Reul*, to be rude, unmannerly.—Ray. *Roil*, to perplex, to muddy, make turbid, Grose. *Rile*, to ruffle; *roiling*, fidgetting, climbing about, said of children, Northampts.; *rile*, to reach as a restless child, Dorset; *roil*, an abusive female; *roily*, to scold, Devon; *roily*, to traduce, to backbite, West of Eng; *roil*, a great awkward hoyden, a big, ungainly slammakin—MS., Devon. Gloss. *Roil*, to rove about, from O. Norse, *hrolla*.—Coleridge's *Dict.* of 13th cent., *English*. *Roytyn* or *roylyn*, or gone ydyl abowte.—Pr. Pv.

Maydes myxte with men in company,
Let them in solempne flockes goe *royle*.

—Seneca's *Tenne Tragedies*, 1581.

Were wont to roam and *roile* in clusters.—Stanishurst's *Ireland*, 1584.

Sathan is now in his passions; he feelles his passion approaching, he loves to fish in *royled* waters.—The Simple Cobbler of Aggadarn, p. 2, 1647.

He took a turn or two in his dining-room, and said nothing, by which I perceived his spirits were very much *roiled*; therefore I kept silence also, expecting what would follow. There was no need of asking what news, when the purse, with the great seal, lay upon the table. At last his lordship's discourses and actions discovered that he was in a very great passion, such as may be termed agony, of which I never saw in him any like appearance since I first knew him.—North's *Lives*, i., 415.

But that his friends, intelligent persons ** should believe it, was what *roiled* him exceedingly.—Id. ii., 168.

But although his fears of the law, or rather of my Lord Jeffries were removed, yet his spirits were so *roiled* with this expedition, that he never heartily enjoyed himself after.—Id. iii., 140.

And King William, having secured his own game, would not *roil* it to gratify them.—Id. iii., 183.

As surely as wormwood shall still and heal such *roilings*.—Fairfax.

RILLY The dado or moulding round the base of a room. 'Dust the *rilly*.'—Moor. See under *Rally*.

RIM of the Body, the membrane lining the abdomen and covering the bowels.

Old Eng.; *rim* or *rymme*. Bishop Wilkins defines it the membrane of the belly 'Omentum, a fat pannicle, caule sewet, *rim*, or kell, wherein the bowels

are lapt.—*Florio*. A. S., *rima*, an edge; Wel., *rhim*. Pistol, at Agincourt, threatens Monsieur le Fer—

For I will fetch thy *rim* out at thy throat,
In drops of crimson blood.—*Hen. 5*, Act 4.

RIM. To shoe a horse; a bill sent to a Norfolk clergyman ran—
'To *rimming* your ass.' *Rere and Rym*, back and edge.

Bot non stode Harald dynt, that bifore him kam
The rought of thare rascaille he did it *rere and ryme*.

Robert de Brunne

RIMPLE. A wrinkle, pucker. A. S., *hrimple*.

RINGE. The border of a cap or kerchief, a row of plants.
'Plant em in *ringes*.' A. S., *hringe*. '*Reenge* or *rowe*.—*Pr. Pv.*

RINGLED. Married.

RINGLENS. Coarse flour.

Ring is Sc. for the meal falling between the millstone and the case. *Renge*, a hair sieve for flour, Dorset; in Somerset, a *range*.

RINKIN. A fox, Suff; Ger., *reineke*.

RIPPIER. One who brings fish from the coast to sell inland.
Lat., *ripa*, a sea shore.

Cowell, in his Law Dict. calling them *reparii*, derives à fiscella qua in devehendis piscibus utuntur; in Eng., a *ripp*, basket. Isl., *hripp*.

It appeareth on record, that in the yere 1522, the *rippars* of Rie and other places solde their fresh fish in Leadenhall market.—*Stowe's London*, 1599.

In Suffolk, Moor states the word is used, pronounced *rib*, for open work hen cages, and baskets in which oranges, &c. are hawked about.

Where tis to be noted that they come in with a sleeueless conscience, and thinke it no good doctrine which is not preached with the cloak cast over each shoulder like a *rippier*—*Pap with a Hatchet*, 1589.

RIPPLE. A Norfolk mode of ploughing; laying the land two furrows together.

RISPS. Stems or stalks of climbing plants, the fruit-bearing stems of raspberries. In Suf. the green straw or runners of growing peas and potatoes.

It., *raspo*; Span., *raspa*, a stalk of grapes, beard of corn. Hence *rape* tabac; Eng., *rappee*.

Strabery rype, and cherries in the *ryse*—*Lydgate*.

RIST. A rising ground; advance of prices; an origin. Ger., *rist*.

And the rather, for that the words thus foisted in are of such a sort trust and end, that if you look but to their *rists* and lay their betokenings to the things whose names they bear, I dare undertake twenty for one, that even the slighted and off-cast words in the mouths of handy-crafts-men and earth-tillers shall be better drawn and more patty brought in.—*Fairfax*.

RIVERS. The women in the herring curing houses who string the fish upon spits for smoking, see p. 301. Dan., *rive*, to lacerate, pierce. Isl., *ryf*. *Ryvyn* or *reendyn*.—*Pr. Pv.*

Little knocks *rive* great blocks.—*Local Proverb*.

ROABERS. The men who spread and turn over the herrings on the floor of the curing houses, see page 301. Dan., *röre*, to stir about. Su.-Goth., *röra*; Isl., *hræra*. '*Rooryn*, or *ruffelyn* amonge thynghys.'—*Pr. Pv.*

ROB. Jam, thick jelly made from fruit.

Fr., *rob de ribes*, the preserved juice of gooseberries or currants; It., *rob*; Pers., *rubb*.

ROBBLE. A rake, used by bakers in stirring bread in the oven. O. Fr., *roable*, an oven-rake; Wel., *rhawbal*, a shovel.

Hartshorne in his *Salop Ant.* remarks, I never heard it but once, and then it was used at a mill under the south side of the Wrekin, to describe an instrument with which oats are stirred in an oven.

ROBLET. A large chicken or young cock. A var. seemingly of *gobbler*, the local term for a turkey-cock; Sc., *bubbly-jock*.

The Dut. has *robberol*, a nickname for a lusty boy, or plump child.

Roblet occurs in East Anglian literature, with the meaning apparently of the Low Ger. *rabbelen*, garrire, nugari, blaterare, precipitare, sive confundere verba.—*Kilian*.

But if the man who is so all to benighted, will needs be setting up a *Will-in-the-Wisp* no wonder if the glare of it sometimes *roblet* him into bogs and marl pits.—*Fairfax*.

But now one reason at least why the understanding has been *robletted* into these wastes and wildernesses is, the forefearing that if emptiness far and wide were not granted, the world would not be bounded.—*Fairfax*.

ROCKET. A row of holes made by dibbles; the length of the stretch.

ROCK-STAFF. A distaff. An old woman's *rock-staff* is a contemptuous expression for a silly superstitious fancy.

Swed., *rock*; Ger., *rocken*, a distaff; *rocken-weisheit*, old woman's philosophy. 'Rokke of spynnyng, colus.'—*Pr. Pv.*

RODE. To spawn.—E. Ang.; Wel., *rhid*, spawn; *Rownd*, fish roe, N. Ang., from Dan., *raun*. Ger., *rogen*. Su.-Goth. *rok*. Isl., *hrogn*.

Rid, a hollow place in gravel where salmon deposit their roe, from Sc., *redd*, spawn.—*Jam.*

ROGER'S BLAST. A sudden local motion of air, perceptible only by its whirling up the dust on a dry road in perfectly calm weather, somewhat in the manner of a water spout. It is reckoned a sign of approaching rain.—*Forby*.

Gael., *ruidheas*, a blast, agitated movement; Wel., *rhudaiz*, blustering, roaring. 'Rowdyonys, blaste or qwyrlwynd, turbo.'—*Pr. Pv.*

ROGGE. To shake roughly. Su.-Goth. *rycka*. Isl., *hröcka*, cum impetu ferri; Sc. *rug*, to tear in pieces *Roggle*, N. Ang.; Wel., *rhuglaw*, to move about briskly; Prov. Ger., *rogel*, loose, unfixed. 'Heromede, herarede, that roggede alle tte erthe.'—*Morte Arthure M.S. Linc.*

She *rogged* on hym, and was nothing a-dradde.—*Lydgate*.

ROKE. A fog. *Roky*, foggy. Sea *roke* is a cold fog or thick mist spreading rapidly along our eastern shores, sometimes to a distance of eight or ten miles inland. Mid Ang., *rawk*.

Isl., *rok*; Dan., *ryger*, a steaming, reeking exhalation; A.S., *reac*. In Sussex, *roke* is the steam from boiling water. *Roke*, myste.—*Pr. Pv.*

Her lewde lypyes twayne. They slaver men sayne—Lyke a *roky* rayne.

—*Skelton*.

ROLLIKY. Uneven, rough. **ROLLIPOKE.** Hempen cloth of coarse texture. A.S., *hreoq*, rough.

ROMMOCK. To romp or gamble boisterously.

Old High Ger., *hromjan*, to bustle, make a noise; Ger., *rammeln*, to tumble, romp; Su.-Goth., *ram*, stout, robust; Isl., *rammaukinn*, sturdy, of overflowing energy and spirits.

And yet she's a *rommaking*, *slommaking* thing, .

And as wild as a filly let loose in the spring.—*Clare's M.S. Poems*.

RONDS, or **RANDS**. Terms applied to the unembanked margins of

the East Norfolk rivers. O. Norse, *rönd*, margin, edge.—See *Rand*.

ROOKER. Refuse broken fish. Sw., *råk*, fish guts.

ROOMS. The spaces between the thwarts of a boat. Isl., *rummr*.
Used in this sense only.

ROOZLY or RAWSELY. Gravelly subsoil, thin-skinned with mould.
A. S., *hruse*, a rock, hill, earth. *Ros-land*, heathy land; Wel.,
rhos, a moor, peat land.

Rosil or *rosily* soil, land between sand and clay, neither light nor heavy.—
Ray's Eastern Words. *Russell'd*, withered as an apple, Whitby. Wel.,
rhuzawl, ruddy, russetty; *Rosel*, to crisp with heat, Teesdale; to *rossel* his
shins, to kick the skin from the legs, Salop; Gael., *rusal*, to scrape, scratch.

ROUNE. To whisper, A.S., *runian*. 'Rownyyn to-geder, *susurro*.'
—*Pr. Pv*. O.H.G., *rūnen*, hence Gothic *runa*, mystery; *runic*, &c.

Were I but to whisper to him of whom so many talk aloud, I should *rown*
him thus much in the ear.—*Fairfax*.

ROUT. To snore, to roar, bellow, like animals, to holla.

Sax., *hrutan*; Isl., *rauta*, *hriota*. *Rute* to cry with vehemence. Chesh
Rout, the bray of an ass, Leeds. *Rowtare yn slepe, stertor*.—*Pr. Pv*.

ROUT, ROATING. Coarse grass, which looks brown and sere in
the meadows in spring. 'It differs from *fog*, in that the latter
is green and sour'.—*Moor*. See der. under *rowen*.

The Good Shepherd will not let his sheep feed in hurtful and *roating*
pastures, but will remove them to good feeding grounds.—*Pilkington*.

Rowty, applied to rank grass, occurs in an old Essex writer, *Harrison's*
Britaine, prefixed to Holinshed's Chronicle, 1577.

ROVE. A scab. *Rovy*, scabby. A. S., *hreoƿ*. Also a mode of
ploughing, similar to *baulking*. 'Three clean earths and a *rove*,'
is a stipulation to an out-going tenant, dated 1740.—*Oullum's*
Hausted, p. 217. Su.-Goth., *rifwa*. Isl., *riufa*, to cleave.

ROVING WEATHER. Uncertain weather.

ROWEN, ROUGHINGS, or ROWINS. The after-math of mown
meadows. See *Rawings*.

Roughings, latter grass, after mathes—*Ray's S. and E. Words*.

Which ever ye sow—That first eat low,

The other forbear—For *rowen* to spare.—*Tusser*

A. S., *hruh*; Ger., *rauh*; Dan., *ru*, rough, coarse; Ger., *raugh-gras*, small
meadow grass.

Rowen is a field kept up till after Michaelmas, that the corn left on the ground
may sprout into green.—*Bailey's Dict.*

ROWS. The names given to the blocks of narrow streets, running
east to west, which constitute Old Yarmouth.

N. Ang., *raw*, as *Pether-Raw*, *Shiney-Raw*; Sax., *rawa*; Old Eng. and Sc.
rew, a street; Lat., *ruga*; Sp., *rua*; Fr., *rue*.

ROWY, ROWNY. Of uneven texture. Cor. of *rough*. A.S., *ruh*.

ROYNISH. Scabby, mangy, mean, base. Fr., *rogneux*. It., *rógna*.

The sloven and the careless man, the *roynish* nothing nice.—*Tusser*.

'She was not such a *roynish rannell*, (strumpet) or such a dissolute gillian-
flurtes, as this wainscot-faced Tomrig.—*Gab. Harvey's Pierce's Super-*
erogation, 1600.

RUCK I.—A wrinkle, crease, plait or fold. Isl., *hrukka* a wrinkle.

II.—To cower, to huddle together. Isl., *hrukku*, Dut., *hurken*.

In the same sense a *ruck* is a heap, N. Ang.; Isl., *hraukr*; Sue-Goth., *ruka*; Fris., *ruk*. 'Rukkun, or cower down.'—Pr. Pv. Dan., *ruge*, to brood, hatch. *Reawking*, idling in neighbours' houses.—Tim Bobbin.

The wolfe in fieldis the shepe dothe grete duresse,
Rukking in foldis for fere dar nat arise.—Lydgate.

RUDLE. A beverage composed of warm beer and gin, with sugar and a slice of lemon peel.—*Moor*.

The Ger. has *rudeln*, to stir about.

RUFFATORY. A rude, boisterous lad, fond of horse-play.

It., *ruffa*, a scrambling, pulling; *arruffare*, to dishevel; *baruffa*, a fray; Prov., *barrufaut*, fighter, brawler, from Old H. Ger., *bi-roufan*.—*Dies*.

RUMBUSTICAL. Boisterous, bustling, shoving.

Scot., *rambaskuns*. Possibly from the Su.-Goth. *ram*, robust, and *busa*, cum impetu ferri, irruere, *basa*, ferire. In some Eng. dial. *robustical*, of which it may be a var.

RUMGUMSHUS. Opinionated, rough and surly, quarrelsome.

The Moes. Goth. has *raum*, stout, sturdy; *gaum-jan*, to perceive, estimate. Scot., *ramgunshock*, coarse, unpolished. *Rumgumption*, rough sense.

RUMMER. A large, strapping lass. *Rumpkin*, a large drinking glass.

'A ramman girt an' a very large one, Cumb. Isl., *rumr*; Su-Goth., *rum*, bulky, large.

RUNDESCANT. To enlarge on, used by Bp. Hall. Sw., *rundiscanten*.

RUNNABLY. Currently, smoothly, without hesitation. 'The boy reads pretty *runnably*.' In Suf., *renably*. See *rennible*.

RUNT. An obstinate old cow, or ill-conditioned woman; *runty*, crusty, surly. Ger., *rind*; Dut., *rund*, a cow, heifer; Isl., *hrund*, a woman. (*mulier libertina*, says Jamieson.)

Runt, an aged ox, Cumb. *Runty*, thick short-set, red faced, Whitby.

RUSNS or REWSNS. The splints or narrow bands of wood running inside a boat by which it is raised. Sw., *resa*, to raise up.

RUTTLE. To make a rough noise in breathing, as when there is an obstruction in the throat or lungs, Dut. *reutelen*.

SAD-BAD, sadly-bad, sadly-badly, very ill, sadly-poorly.

Sir G. C. Lewis in his *Herefordshire Dialect* notices the propensity in the poor for using qualifying diminutives, specially conversing with those better off. He attributes the habit to a desire to excite compassion, by making themselves appear ill off. Ask 'what sort of crop of potatoes have you?' 'I think I shall have a few taters.' They would say no more if they expected the best possible crop. How are you? 'Middling, or indifferent well,' would be the answer, though the person was not ill, and had not had an ailing for years. Though a man said, 'we do rent a little house and bit of garden of Mr. Jones,' his cottage and garden might be the largest in the district. 'I did take the man his *bit o' victuals*' would mean his ordinary dinner, and perhaps a large one too. So 'he do get a drop of drink,' might mean six quarts of cider a day. Ask a woman, staggering under a load of wood which she has got on her head, she will answer, 'I ha just been picking a few chats.' On the same principle the cottagers amplify, when talking of those objects which are expensive to them. How many children have you? *Woman*—a large family, I ha had ten. You do not discover until you ask a second question, 'but I had buried six when they were babies.' The habit of farmers and gardeners, in speaking of their crops is precisely analogous. They will neither admit times be to good, or weather to be altogether favourable."

SAFER or SEA-FARE. A voyage. 'What sort of *safir* have you made.'

SAG. To bend, give way, decline from weakness or over-loading, as gate bars, beams, rafters, &c. Applied to health also. 'How is your neighbour?' 'Why 'a fare kedgy—but 'a begin to *sag*, kiender.' To decline in health,

'Nature hath lent him a flabberkin face like one of the four winds, and cheekes that *sagge* like a woman's dugges over his chin-bone'—*Nash's Pierce Penilesse*.

'Next, the Norfolk Hog, or Swine-worrier who had got him a *sagging* pair of cheeks, like a sow's paps that gives suck with the plentiful Maste before him, came lazily waddling in, and puffed out *Pork, Pork, Pork*.'—*Nash's Lenten Stuff*.

The mind I sway by and the heart I bear,

Shall never *sagg* with doubt, nor shake with fear.—*Macbeth*, v. 3.

A. S., *sigan*, to sink, fall; Ger., *sakken*; Fris. Isl., and Goth., *siga*; L. Ger. *sijgen*,

'What a *segging* gait he has,' said of the heavy labouring walk of a corpulent man, N. Ang. *Sagg'd*, bulged out.—*Whitby*. *Saggyn*. or *satelyn*, *basso*.—*Pr. Pv.*

SAG-LEDGES. Cross-bars or braces, to prevent gate ledges *sagging*.

SALE. The iron or wooden part of a cart horse's collar.

A. S., *sæl*, harness for a draught horse, a fetter, chain; *sol. sæl*, a wooden hoop, to put round the neck of an ox, Su-Goth *sele*, a horse's draught collar. *Sele* horsys harness, Pr. Pv., and *Palsg*. *Arquillus* an ox bowe.—*Ortus Vocabulorum*, 1500. *Sole* a bowe about a beestes necke, *Palsg*., *Reatis* a *Sole* to tie beasts. *Gouldman's Dict.* 1664. A. S., *Selan*, to bind, unite.

Sahl, sole, sow, an ox yoke.—*Chesh*. *Sole* a collar of wood put round the neck of cattle to confine them to the stelch (upright stake) *Heref.* *Soole*, *beestys teyynge*, ligaculum Pr. Pv. Fris. *säle*, horse collar.

SALLY. To pitch forward.

To run from side to side as at a ship launch, N. Ang. *Sally* and back stroke, a term among ringers; *Northampts.* *Sally*, a tottering situation, *Sussex*. Fr. *sailler* to issue forth, leap, spring out; *saillie*, a quick egress.

'The horse, when he found himself clear of pursuers, stopped his course by degrees and went with his rider (fast asleep upon his back) into a pond to drink, and there sat his lordship upon the *sally*.'—*North's Lives*, i. 92.

SAMMEN-BRICKS. Bricks insufficiently burned, soft, and friable.

Ger. *samisch*, soft. The A. S. has *sam*, half.

Sammy, is a term for any soft half-baked individual, applied to both sexes, common to most of our Eng. dial. Gael. *Samh*, rustic, clownish. *Sammy*, clammy, sticky, *sammy* bread, *Salop*. Moist, sweaty. *Northants*; watery, soft, *Beds*. The Scand. *sammen* has the sense of sticky, coherent.

SAMMODITHEE. A word noted by Sir Thomas Browne. He left it unelucidated, and it has remained until our day a puzzle to philologists. *Hickes* interpreted it 'Say me how dost thou.' Lately it has been unriddled by Mr. *Spurdens*, as a corruption of 'Sam on to thee,' the constant response to the toast 'Here's t'ye!'

Syncopated phrases were common in O. Eng. colloquialisms. Two are instanced in the *Gram.* to *Cotgrave's Fr. Dict.*, 1650, *Muskiditti*, much good may it doe to you; and *Godigodin*, God give you good evening.

SANNY. To utter a whining, wailing cry, without apparent cause.

Possibly a cor. of the Fr. *sennuyer*, or from *sangloter*, to sob, or a var. of

SANNYKING. Lasting, said of wind. Isl., *seinka*, to linger; *seinn*, slow, late; Su. Goth *sinka*; Old Fr., *senis*, late. A pining, sannyng wind,' is a common phrase; *Sannyking*, lingering.

SAPPY. Silly, shallow-pated. *Sap-scul*, a half-witted fellow.

Derived, says Moor, from the outer timber next the bark being less solid and weaker than the inner. The weak unsolid part is called the *sap*. A. S., *sæp*; Dut., *sap*.

SARNICK. inanimate. A small quantity. Wel. *swrn*, a little.

Ger. *saumig*, slack, slow, backward.

SAUCE. I.—Insolence of speech. II.—Any sort of vegetable eaten with flesh meat.

Sauce, vegetables on the table.—*Hallamshire* dial. 'Long *sarse* and short *sarsel*, and round *sarsel*, are not unfrequently applied to different vegetables; carrots, beets, and potatoes are so called, according to their respective dimensions.'—*Elwyn's Americanisms*.

SAY. A taste or trial, a sample. 'Now the sheep have got a *say* of this grass they cannot keep out of it.' Fr., *essayer*. *Say-nay*, to refuse, forbid.

The meddling ape, that like a tall wood-cleauer assaying to rend a two-penny billet in two pieces, did wedge in his pettitoes so fast between the two clefts that he stuck by the feets for a *saie*.—*Nash's Plaine Percivall*.

SCAITHFUL. Given to breaking from pasture. Said of open fields liable to be overrun by stock. A. S., *scethan*, to spoil, damage.

Fris *scatha*, Su-Goth *skada*.

SCALD. I.—A multitude, said in a depreciating sense. 'I found the whole *scald* on em, as of boys robbing an orchard or hen-roost. Su-Goth., *Skall* a noisy crowd; a general hunt. A. S. *sceol*, a gang. II.—A patch in a barley field, scorched and withered by the sun in a hot season, and on a light soil. To scorch, make bare; Isl., *skalladur*, bare, bald; Su-Goth, *skallog*; Dan., *skold-corn*, blighted corn. Scabby, scurfy, also mean, disgusting.

'Other news I am advertised of, that a *scald* trivial lying pamphlet, is given out to be of my doing.'—*Nashe's Pierce Penilesse*.

'And safely covered from the scalding shine.'—*Phineas Fletcher*.

Scald, equivalent to the whole boiling.—*Miss Baker*. *Schald*, shallow, Sc. *Scholde*, not depe, *bassus*, Pr. Pv., hence shoal.

SCAMBLE. To scramble, to shift. '*Scamblingly*, griffe-graffe, by hooke or by crooke, squimble-squamble, catch that catch may.'—*Cotgr.* Isl. *skalma* to take long strides. Su-Goth, *skamma*, to despoil; Dan., *skæmme*. See *shamble*.

'And somewhat to *scamble* for hog and for hen.'—*Tusser*.

Scambler, a bold intruder at other people's dinner tables, Sc. *Scamble*, to rove about, climb, scramble, obtain by struggling with others. Also to mangle, maul.—*Bailey*. *Scambling*, sprawling, *Heref.*

'Yea, but it is a harder, and not so easie for an old man, since the cushion was taken away from it:' meaning 'Since Dr. Scambler had *scambled* away the revenues thereof.'—*Fuller's Worthies*—London.

SCARE. To spend, Suf. A cur to drive away pigs and poultry.

SCATCH-PAWED. Left-handed, Essex. N. Ang., *skiff-handed*.

Ger. *schicht*, unable, disabled.

SCHISMS. Frivolous excuses, whimsies, fancies, and fooleries in general. Ex. 'Come, come, let us have no more of your *schisms*.' 'That man have always one *schism* or another in his head.'

SCHOOL. A shoal; a *school* of whales or herrings are common phrases. A. S., *sceol*, a multitude; *scolu*, a shoal. *Sculle* of a fyssh, *examen* Pr. Pv.

'The youth in *sculs* flocke and runne together.'—*Foxe's Acts and Monuments*.

SCHRAIL. A light rail or fence.

COCKER'D, or COCKERED. *Rifted*, as a tree blasted by lightning; said also of sappy timber.

A var. of *cockle*, a term applied to any surface rendered uneven by shrinking or expansion after wet. Der., Lat., *cochlea*, a snail, from what Sir T. Browne describes as the wreathy spires and *chocleary* turnings of its shell.

SCOOT. An irregular angular projection in a field, garden, &c.

Su.-Goth., *skoet*, an angle. A. S. *sceat*. Isl. *skeyt*.

SCOOTER. to run like *scooter*, i. e., be very nimble, a simile borrowed from the rapid flight of the *scoter* duck. *Anas nigra*, Lin. *scuty*, smart, clean, brisk; *scooter*, a squirt.

Scote, to shoot along in running, Dorset. A. S., *sceotan*. Su.-Goth., *skutta*.

SCOPPET. To lade, empty. *Skuppet*, a scooping implement used in embanking, having its sides turned a little in, and the handle with no eye-tiller or perforator, as the common spade has. It is intended for turning over *muckles* or midden heaps rather than for digging. Su.-Goth. *skopa*. L. Ger. *schuppe*.

Sharp cutting spade for dividing of mow,

With *skuppet* and skavell that marshmen allow.—*Tusser*.

'Though he puts them to their trumps other times, and *scuppets* not his beneficence into their mouths with such fresh water facility.—*Nash's Lenten Stuff*.

Scuppit, a small scoop used by maltsters.—*Sussex*.

SCORE OUT TO. To scour as the tide scores out the beach. In Suffolk the gangways to the sea are called *scores*. At Lowestoft the very steep lanes running down to the shore are termed *scores*.

Score, a deep narrow indentation on a hill side, Sc., Isl., *skir*, a fissure, cleft. Su.-Goth. *skora*, Wel. *ysgar* to cleave. A. S., *scoren*, cleft. The A. S. has also *score*, the shore, Su.-Goth. *skär*.

SCOTCH. To spare, to refrain. 'I did not *scotch* to tell him my mind,' i. e., I did not mince the matter with him.

Sw. *skiuta*, to break the matter to; to hint at an affair. In the Su.-Goth it has similar senses, the root being to thrust at, push at. A. S., *scothan*.

SCOVE. to run swiftly, to scour along. A. S., *scyfe*, precipitation.

SCRAB, SCRAP. To scratch or claw: dimin., *scrabble*; Dan., *skrabe*, to scrape; Isl., *skrapa*; Dut., *schrap*. Scrabbed eggs are a Lenten dish of eggs boiled hard, chipped and mixed with butter, salt and pepper. Su.-Goth., *skrada*, to cut small.

'As when David, fearing the Philistines and distrusting God's protection, let his spittle fall down upon his beard, and *scrabbled* upon the doores.'—*Rogers' Naaman*.

SCRADGE. to dress and trim the slope of a fen bank, to strengthen it from an apprehended overflow. Dan., *skred*, slope; *skraane*, to slant. A. S., *screadian*; L., Ger. *schraden* to cut in slanting pieces.

SCRANCH, SCRANGE. A deep scratch. Dut., *schrammen*, to scratch with a nail. Dan., *skramme*, to scar.

SCRAPE. A scrape, or scrap, a Norfolk term for a quantity of chaff mixed with grain, and laid as a decoy to attract small birds within range.

'Making a *scrape* for sparrows and small birds.'—*Sir T. Browne*.

A term applied also, says the same writer, by seamen to the *Canis Carcharias*, or other members of the shark species, sometimes taken entangled in herring nets.

SCREWT. Half a quarter of a sheet of paper. Low Sc., *scread*, A. S., *screadian*, to cut in pieces, divide, shred. See *vessel*.

SCRIGGLE, SKRUGGLE. To writhe, struggle, twist about. 'A ketched an arrawiggle, an ta *skriggled* an got awah;' 'a *skrigglen* eel.' Dut., *stribbelen*, to struggle; *schrikkig*, skittish.

'They *skriggled* and began to scold,

But laughing got the master,

Some *quackling* cried, 'Let go your hold;'

The farmers held the faster.'—*Bloomfield's Horkey*.

SCRIMMAGE, SCRUMMAGE. To skirmish. A. S., *scrimbre*, a sword-player. O. H. G., *skirm*, shield. Bav., *schremen*, to fence. Fr., *escrimer*. Isl., *skylma*.

One of the numerous words pertaining to arms, which the Romance nations received from their Gothic conquerors.—Diez.

SCRINGE. To shrink, or shrivel, as with sharp cold or dry heat.

A. S., *scrincan*.

SCROGGY. Twisted, stunted; *scrog legs*, bandy legs. Ger., *schrag*, awry. *Scrog*, a stunted bush or shrub, N. Ang.

SCRUMTIOUS. Stingy, screwy. *Scrimpie*, niggardly, Sc.; *scrinch*, a small bit, *Mid Ang.*, Ger., *schrumpen*, Su-Goth, *skrumpen*.

SCUD. To shake herrings out of the nets. Dut., *schudden*. Su-Goth, *skudd-a*. See p. 294.

SCUM. To mow.

Probably a vulgarism, although the Wel. *ysgawm* and the Gael *sgud* have meanings akin, and the Su-Goth has *skümma*, to crop, cut short.

SCUMMER. To foul with dirty liquid, to defame.

'He and his brother *scummed* out betwixt them an epistle to the readers against all poets and writers.'—*Nash's Have with you to Saffron Walden*.

Su-Goth, *skemma*, to load with opprobrium.

SCURF, SKRUFF. A thin crust, as of a wound healing; impure remains, filthy, scabby matter, &c. Su-Goth., *rufwa*, crusta vulneris. Also the back part of the neck.

Su. Goth., *skrof*; Ger., *schorf*; A. S., *sceorfa*; Isl., *skurfur*.

'And so likes up *scurfe* as the spider doth venom, or the sinke gathers dregges dally.'—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

'If such *scurfe* were only coloured with base Popish varnish, it were a lesse evill: but to set such base wares forth upon God's stall, which were too base to be vended upon the basest stall in a market, how odious is it?—*Id.*

SEA-PYE. The oyster catcher.

It., pd. to Nicholas Grey for a *sepye*, a red shancke and a stynte, ijd.—*L'Estrange Household Accounts*.

SEAL. Time, season, as hay *seal*, barley *seal*, wheat *seal*, &c.

Of an idle fellow it is said, he 'keeps bad *seals*;' of poachers, 'that they are out at all *seals* of the night;' of an industrious man, that he keeps 'good *seals* and meals. A. S., *sæl*, time, occasion. 'Seel, tyme' Pr. Pv.

To give one the *seal* of the day, i. e., to be ordinary civil to him but nothing more.—*Local Saw*.

SEED-LEP. The basket carried by the sower. A. S., *sæd-leap*.

SEGS. Rushes, reeds, sedges; a *seggen*-bottom'd chair, a *seggen* collar. A. S., *segg*. Wel. *hesgen*.

Sedge-collars for plough-horses, for lightness of neck.—*Tusser*.

'Sche took a *leep* of *segg*, i. e., a basket of rush. Exod. ii., 3.—*Wycliffite Version*.

SEISINGS, or NOSSELLS. The short lines by which, at 6-inch intervals, herring nets are attached to their supporting rope. Dan., *seisings*, seizings, *seise*, to seize. See page 291.

SEKETTA. An executor.

SENCION. Common groundsel, *senecio vulg*, Lin. '*Synchone*,' Pr. Pv.

SET. A game, as whist; a rubber consisting of two or three *sets*.

'When we have matcht our rackets to these balles,

We will in France (by God's grace) play a *set*

Shall strike his father's crowne into the hazard.'—Hen. V., i., 2.

Also used for sit. 'Dew that there owd hin set?' 'No, she lah.' A place in a river where fixed nets are set,

SET-FAST. In use, not at liberty. 'Retch me the black jack.'

'You can't het, 'tis set-fast; s' full a burgad.—*Moor*.

SEW. To ooze out, as water from wet land, blood from a wound.

To *sew* out stammingly, to flow out surprisingly. Cor. of *issue*.

SHACK. I.—*v.* To rove about as a stroller or mendicant; *s.* a shabby fellow, lurking and prowling about, a *shackaback*. A. S., *sceacere*, L. Ger., *schäcke*. II.—*v.* To turn pigs or poultry into the stubble to feed on the scattered grain; *s.* the shaken-out grain remaining on the ground after harvest and gleanings. In woodlands, the acorns or mast.

Yoke seldom thy swine,—While *shack* time doth last.—*Tusser*.

Like a broad *shak*-fork with a slender steale.—*Hall's Satires*.

'Or that none of those rayes of other atoms, that are *shacking* all over the world's wastes come riding or drilling through both.'—*Fairfax*.

Shack, to shake out or shed as corn at harvest. *Shak*-fork, a hay fork, N. Ang., *shack*-ripe, fruit ready to fall with a touch.—*Whitby*. *Shack*, offal corn, the refuse of the *tailings*. *Northants*. *Su-Goth*, *Skaka*. A. S., *scacan*, to shake.

Shack, (in *Norfolk* and *Suffolk*) the liberty of winter pasturage; the Lords of Manours having the privilege to feed their flocks of sheep at pleasure, upon their tenants' land during the six winter months. Also a custom in *Norfolk* to have common for hogs, from the end of harvest till seed time in all men's grounds; whence to go at *shack* in that country, signifies as much as, to go at large.—*Phillips' World of Words*, 1706.

Common at Shack,—(Eng. Law,) a species of common by Vicinage in *Norfolk*, *Lincoln*, and *York*, being the right of persons occupying lands lying together in the same common field, to turn out their cattle after harvest, to feed promiscuously in that field. *BurriU's Law Dict.* 1850.

Shack is in several places the term which expresses a general right. There is a piece of common; each inhabitant of that district claims a portion or use of it. This is denominated the right of *shack*. The lawyers have been greatly puzzled with it. Perhaps the difficulty will vanish if we remember the French *chacun*, each.—*Rev. R. W. Hamilton's Forks. Dial.*

Miss Gurney der. from the Ger., *zeche*, a club, *zur zeche gehen*, to go shares.

Possibly from the Ger. *schicht*, share, portion; *schichtung*, division of property. The *Su-Goth* and *Dan.* have *skick*, order, custom, usage.

SHACKY. Shabby, ragged, shiftless, shirtless, at a loose end.

SHAGGY. Morose, coarse, and ill-tempered. A. S., *sceacged*.

SHAIL. To run *shailing* about, to move as if the bones were loose in their sockets, (like a ripe nut in its *shale* or shell.—*Forby*.)

Our Thomasen she doth trip, our Jenet she doth *shayle*.—*Skelton*.

Shale, to drag the feet so as to scrape the ground.—*Teesdale*. *Shawl*, to

walk badly, or with the legs crooked, *Cumb.*, Fr., *aller eschais*. *Shallock*, to trail the feet from sheer laziness, *Leeds*. Su-Goth, *skælg*, oblique, crooked. *Shaylyn*, disgradiator, Pr. Pv. *Shayler*, that gothe aw rie with his fete, *boyteux*. I *shayle* as a man or horse dothe that gothe croked with his legges.—*Le vas eschays*—*Palsg*, 1530.

SHALE. The mesh of a net, from the *shale* or netting-pin thrust in to tighten and guage it. A. S., *scylan*. See page 292.

SHALM, SHARM. To scream shrilly and vociferously. Dut., *schroom*, fright. Su-Goth, *skerma*, to vociferate, lament loudly, Wel., *ysgarm*. See *sharming*.

SHAMBLE. To drive away, disperse, make away with. Dut., *schampen*, to slip aside; Dan., *skæmme*, to despoil, cause to fall off. Su-Goth, *skamma*, to diminish, lose, spoil.

SHANNY. Harum-scarum, scatter-brained, frolicsome, unruly (not from vice), high-spirited, romping, head-strong. N. Ang., *shandy*.

In N. Ang. and Sc. *shanny* has the stronger senses of silly, worthless. Su-Goth, *skamm*, Isl., *skömm*, dishonour, ill-doing. A. S., *scande*. In Linc. and Mid Ang. *shanny* has the sense of shame-faced.

‘And out ran every soul beside

A *shanny-pated* crew.—*Bloomfield's Horkey*.

SHARMING. A confused noise, din, or buzzing, such as is made by disorderly children. ‘What a *sharmin* them there children dew keep.’—*Moor*, who considers it a cor. of *swarming*, and borrowed from the confused noise of bees.

Ger., *schaere*, a multitude, crowd. Su-Goth, *skerma*, Wel., *ysgarm*, a shouting, screaming.

‘Whence would arise what I am not forward at all to speak of; an harshness in these things not being so harmless as the cutting of cork, whereby, though you saw and wring the ears with the *sharm*, yet still ’tis but a light business you have to deal with.—*Fairfax*.

SHAUNTY. Shewy, flashy. Cor. of Fr., *gentil*, or of jaunty.

SHEATH. The handle of a long pitch-fork. A. S., *sceat*, partition.

SHEEPED. Disgraced. Used by Bp. Hall.

SHEER. I.—Brittle. Su-Goth, *skör*, fragile; *Spere*, britill or brekyll, Pr. Pv. II.—Bright red, shining with inflammation. Gael., *cear*, blood-coloured, red.

SHELLED, SHALED. Pie-bald. Su-Goth, *skildra*, Ger., *schildern*, to paint in diversified colour. Ger., *schecken*, to dapple, streak. Used in *shell*-duck, *shell*-drake, &c.

Shell-apple, the chaffinch; *sheld*, flecked, speckled, N. Ang., *shell*-cock, the missel thrush, *Cumb*.

SHELDRAKE. Or burrow-duck; *Anas tadorna*, Lin.

‘*Burganders*, a noble coloured fowl which herd in coney-burrows.—Sir T. Browne. *Burganders*, the name given this species by Dr. Browne, may, writes his editor, Mr. Simon Wilkin, be a cor. of *burrow-ganders*.’

Berg. Isl. and Teut. is a rock, hill, mountain. Ger., *berg-huhn*, a wild hen; *berg-enterich*, a wild drake.

SHELVE or SHOLVE. To remove the surface of land with a shovel.

‘We say *sheow* for *shove*, and *showl* for *shovel*,’ in Suffolk, remarks *Moor*. *Show*, pronounced like *cow*, to push or thrust with force.—*Forby*.

Ger., *schaufeln*, to shovel out; A. S., *scufan*.

A calf or colt is said to be *shoorin* when parting with its early teeth; trees putting forth their leaves are also *shoovin*.—*Moor*. *Shove* is also used in East Anglia in the sense of to germinate, to shoot. Dut., *schuyven*, to push forth; *shoovly* is Gypsy for pregnant.

SHEPHERD'S SUNDIAL. The scarlet Pimpernel.

SHERE-MAN. One not enjoying the good fortune to be born in one of "the three counties."

"He is a sort of foreigner to us; and to our ears, which are acutely sensible of any violation of the beauty of our phraseology, and the music of our pronunciation, his speech soon bewrays him. Aye, I knew he must be a *shereman* by his tongue.—*Forby*.

SHERES. A term applied disparagingly to all the counties in England, except Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex, which are called by the natives, 'the three counties.' A.S. *scyr*, from *scyran* to divide.

"A v touch a' the *sheers* in 'em,' is a very malevolent character to give of a horse, and is not safely to be uttered loud enough to be heard by a Suffolk owner.—*Moor*.

SHET. To shoot. Also to shut. E. Ang. Vulgarisms.

'Item, j clothe of arras, with liij archowrys on, *scheting* a doke in the water with a crosse bowe.'—*Inventory of Sir J. Fastolfe's Effects*.

SHIM. A narrow stripe of white, or blaze, or star on a horse's face. In Essex the Jack o' Lantern is called *shim*. A. S., *sciman*, to glitter. 'Schymmid, as hors; scutilatus,' Pr. Pv.

SHIVE, SHIVER. *Skiver*, *slivva*, a slice; A. S., *scyftan*, to divide.

L. Ger., *schiefferen*; Dut., *schyf*, a round slice; Dan., *skieve*.

Also the small iron wedge into which the bolt of a window shutter is fastened. In Suffolk called a *sheer*.

'*Schyvere* of brede or other lyke.' Pr. Pv.

To taste white *shevers* and to make prophit roles.—*Barklay's Egloges*, 1514.

SHOAF, SHOOF. A sheaf of wheat; pl., *shoooves*; Dut., *schoof*.

Schoof or *scheef*.—Pr. Pv.

SHOES AND STOCKINGS. The varieties of primrose and polyanthus which have one flower sheathed in another.

'*Pattens and clogs*' is the Sussex phrase for a like form in the genus *cypripedium*.

SHOO. To scare birds; Ger., *scheuchen*, to scare birds.

Chou, a voice wherewith we drive away pulleine.—*Colgr. Sc.*, *shue*; Lanc, *shu*, Tim Bobbin. In our 13th cent. lit. *shawel* occurs as a scarecrow. Ger., *scheusal*, object of fear.

'So are these bugbears of opinion brought by great clerks into the world to serve as *shewels*, to keep them from those faults whereto else the vanity of the world, and weakness of senses might pull them.—*Sir Philip Sydney's Arcadia*, 1674, p. 263.

SHOOL, SHULVE. To saunter along with extreme laziness, as if shovelling up the dust with the feet. Ger., *schollicht*, cloddy; Dut., *schoor*, to trail along.

SHOOT. To throw in, contribute. 'We *shot* a shilling piece tow'rds the frocks.' A. S., *scot*; Ger., *schliessen*.—*Miss Gurney*.

From the A. S. *sceolan* in its sense of to expend, pay; hence our modern *shot*, contribution.

SHOSHINS. Aslant, sloping. 'Dew yeeow cut that there dreem *shoshins* athelse t'al keeve.'—*Anglice*. 'Do you cut that drain sloping, or else it will cave in.'—*Moor*. See *Ashosh*.

SHOT, or SHOAT. A young pig. In Suffolk, *sheat*; in Essex, *shote*; U. S., *shote*, where 'A poor *shote*' is said of one contemptuously; Dut., *schots*, sorry, base.

Sc., *shets*, three months' old pigs; *shott*, an ill-grown ewe. In New England, a young hog between a sucker and porker, Dut., *schot*, a hogsty.

SHOT-SELE. Eventide, when wild fowl and twilight birds come forth to feed and fly about.

A term applied to it by gunners on the Norfolk Ouse.—*Wright*.

SHOTTEN-HERRINGS. Herrings which have recently discharged their spawn. Applied also to gutted herrings. See page 359.

'Alas, good gentleman! his mandillion was over-cupped, his wit paunched like his wife's spindle, his art shanked like a lath, his conceit as lank as a *shotten* herring.—*Gab Harvey's Pierce's Superogation*, 1593. A. S., *sceotan*.

SHOVELARD. *Platalea leucorodia*; white Spoonbill. See *popler*.

'*Schovelerd* or popler, byrd *scholarde* or poplerd, schoues, (shovel) bec. *Pr. Pv.* 'The platea or *shovelard* which build upon the tops of high trees.'—*Sir T. Browne*. Formerly a regular summer visitor to this county; still met with on the Norfolk coast.

SHOWL. A shovel. N. Ang., *shull*; Dan., *skovl*.

SHRAGS. Ends of sticks, as of broken twigs in a broom, or of whins and furze. 'Yar brum owt ta ha' fine shrags,' said to a man about to dress recently thrashed barley for market; the clippings of live fences.—*Moor*. Ger., *schrug*, crooked, awry; *schragen*, a stack of wood. *Scrog*, a stunted bush, N. Ang. Gael *sgrog*; A. S. *scrob*. *Shrog*, a person of low stature.

'*Shragge* trees, schredynge or shrubbynge, *sarmentacio*,' *Pr. Pv.* 'To *shrag*, castro, *vide*, to lop. Gouldman's Dict., 1664.

Sliden reports of a souldier cast out of the top of a castle, yet by miraculous providence catching hold on the *shrags* of a mulberry tree saved his life.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

They consider not that they fish with a golden hooke for minums, (minnows) if they loose their hooke upon a *shrag* of triall and temptation they can never make amends againe for it.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

SHRAVEL and SHROUGH. Dry sare faggot-wood, fragments of sticks, reeds, &c., bits of coal, cinders, &c., picked up by the poor for fuel, and called *shruff-stuff*. Applied also to other refuse and scrapings. *Shrovy*, shabby, ragged, squalid.

Ger., *schropfen*, to cut; *schroff*, rough, rugged; *schrot*, of refuse quality, applied to wood, grain, &c.; *schuftig*, ragamuffin, squalid, rascally.

SHREEP. Thin. A. S., *screpan*, to pine away.

SHREEVE. The sheriff, *shere-reeve*. A. S., *sur-geref*.

SHREPE. To clear. 'The fog begins to *shrepe* yonder,' i.e. to lift, move off. Isl., *skreppa*.

SHRIMP. Any thing very small; *shrimpsin*, a tiny bit.

SHROWD. To lop the branches of pollard trees. A. S., *screadian*, to prune, lop away; *shrowds*, the loppings so cut away.

SHROWDY. Said of showery weather, causing people to *shrowd* or take shelter; *shrowds*, underground caves, dens of wild beasts.

Sw. *skygd*, shade, shelter, *skydda*, to shield; Wel., *ysgodi*, to take shelter. Isl., *skygga*. Usually derived from A. S., *scrydan*, to clothe. Isl., *skrud*, a garment. See art. in *Nares*.

SHUCK. Var. of *shack*, which see. To shed, strip off. Applied to the shelling out of over-ripe corn, and to the scattered ears of wheat shed in harvesting. Pea *shucks*, pea husks.

Shuck is the form which has naturalised and widely prevails in the U. S. In the South the Indian corn husks are corn *shucks*. Corn *shucking* or husking, a gathering of the young people in a farmer's house or barn to aid him in stripping the husks from the corn. To *shuck* off one's coat, to strip or peel it off. *Chuck*, a shell, North Ang. dial., an egg shell. Gael., *cochull*, a husk. Fr., *coque*; It., *guscio*.

SHUG and SHUCK. To shake, a shaking. 'Give the tree a good *shug*.' 'A gon it a good *shuck*.' 'A *shuck* 'a 's hid.' Growing beans are said to be *shuckl'd* when beat down by wind or hail; *hickled* is said of corn root fallen; *watted* of it when beat down on its side. *Shuck-trot*, a jog trot. *Shuggins*, that which is shed or scattered, as corn at harvest. '*Shoggyn* or *roggyn*, *schakyn* or *waveryn*; *agito*.' Pr. Pv.

Su-Goth *skudda*, Dut., *schudden*, to shake, *schok*, a shake; Ger., *schütteln*. 'And the boot in the myddil of the see was *schoggid* with wavis, for the wynd was contrarie to hem.'—*Wickliffe*. Matthew, c. 14.

SHUTTLE. Slippery, sliding hither and thither. Ger., *schütteln*, to shake, joggle; Wel., *sitellu*, to whisk round. (Wel. *si* is pron. *shi*) '*Schyttyle*, styrtyl, or hasty, *preceps*,' Pr. Pv.

'I am aferd that Jon of Sp'h'm is so *schyttyl* wytttyd that he wyl sett hys gode to morgage.'—*Paston Letters*.

The rest was at my fingers' end; but farewell it since it is gone. Beare with my *shuttle* remembrance.—*Nash's Plaine Percevall*.

You know this well, that if you put a good sure horse in a teame amongst a sort of jades, he will *shuttle* and soon become untoward.—*Rogers' Lost Sheep*.

SIBBIT. See under *sybrit*.

SIDE. Long, as applied to dress. A. S., *sid*. Used in East Anglia, says Forby, in the contrary sense of *straight*, as 'this sleeve is too *side*, it must be let out,' or 'it is too loose, it must be made *sider*.' A confusion which may have arisen from the equal inconvenience of movement felt in wearing a garment too long or too straight.

Old. Fris. and Dan., *sid*, deep. Su-Goth., *sid*; Isl., *sidr*. Used also in Lanc. A. S., *wide* and *side* the Norfolk sense; or as Lanc. people say 'the width and the sith'. In Linc. and in the North Bp. Kennett remarks the usage of a *side* field, i. e., long, a *side* house or mountain, i. e., high and *side*. Used also to describe a high, i. e., a haughty person.

'Sumtyme I can be a monke in a long *syd* cowe,
Sumtyme I can be a none and loke lyke an owle;
I am owre Syre John sumtyme with a new shaven crowne,
Sumtyme the person and swepe the stretes with a *syd* gowne.

—*Bale's King Johan*.

Seest thou how *side* it hangs beneath his hip?

Hunger and heavy iron make girdles slip.—*Hall's Satires*.

SIDUS and SIDLINGS. Sideways. 'Kiender *sidous*,' crooked.

SIGHT. A great number, so as to attract observation. 'What a sight of fine folks at the races!' Common in New England where the phrase 'by a long *sight*,' is also prevalent.

'If youth could know what age do crave,

Sights of pennies youth would save.'—*Norfolk Proverb*.

SILE. To strain as milk, to set down a turbid fluid to deposit its sediment. Whence *silt*, *silth*.

Thus stode I in the frytthy forest of Galtres

Ensnowed with *syll* of the myry moose.—*Skelton*.

One would think so large a sea should in time sand or *syllth* up.—*North's Lives*, iii, 78.

Isl., *sila*; Dan., *sil*, to strain, filter; Ger., *seihen*; Ir., *silim*, to distil.

Sile, filth, because it subsides to the bottom.—*Rays E. Ang. Words*.

SILE. The fry of fish; Icel., *sil*, a long, narrow herring, *sile*, a sprat; Dan., *silder*; Scot., *sillock*; Wel., *sil*, spawn or fry of fish 'The sile of herrings and sprats cooked like whitebait is scarcely distinguishable.'—*Gurney*.

Applied, says *Ihre* in his Su-Goth. Lex. from the Keltic *sil*, spawn, to the herring, from the incredibly rapid multiplication of that fish.

SILVER. To lose, to sustain a loss. *Spend silver*, to lay out money.

Common East Anglicisms. See also under *Little silver*.

Item, I wil that there be fowunde with my good a priest a yeer to syng in seynt Marie chirche for the soulys whoos bodyes I haue causyd to lese sylvoir in ony vyse in my lyve at ony tyme.—Bury Wills, (John Baret, 1463).

And may well be wondered at, that any should be at cost and paines and *spend silver*.—*Rogers' Lost Sheep*.

SIMPER. To simmer, bubble, or boil gently. In Linc., *simber*.

For other instances of this E. Ang. usage see under *hamber*.

'That their vital heat and moisture may not always onely *simber* in one sluggish tenour, but sometimes boil up higher and seethe over.'—*Henry More's Antidote against Atheism*.

SIN. A slur of to stand. 'Don't *sin* talking, but go to work.

SINNOWED. Gaily ornamented. *Sinnow*, a shewily dressed woman.

Of the rarest occurrence in Old Eng. literature. Possibly from the Fr., *sinueux*, 'bosomy, crooked, full of hollow turnings, windings or crinkle crinkles.'—*Cotgr.* Or the Wel., *sidanu*, silky, satiny; *sidanen*, applied to a fine woman.

'What a prejudice it is to the thrift of a flourishing state to poyson the groth of glory, by giving it nought but the puddle water of penury to drinke; to clippe the wings of a high trowing faulcon, who, whereas she wont in her feathered youthfulness, to looke with amiable eye on her gray breast, and her speckled syde sayles, all *sinnowed* with silver quilles, and to driue whole armies of fearfull foules before her to her master's table; now shee sits sadly on the ground picking of wormes, mourning the cruelty of those vngentlemanlike idle hands that dismembroth the beauty of her trayne.'—*Nashe's Pierce Penilesse*.

SISSARARA. A hard, cruel blow. A violent scolding.—N. Ang.; *sessarara*, a good beating or scolding,—Northants.

Nares calls it a cor. of *certiorari*, a writ at law.

'As for the matter of that,' returned the hostess, 'gentle or simple, out she shall pack with a *sassarara*.'—*Vicar of Wakefield*.

That their sins may be removed with a writ of error, and their souls fetched up to heaven with a *sasarara*.—*Revenger's Tragedy*, Old Play.

SITHE. To sigh. Old Eng., *sike*; A. S., *sican*. *Sythyng*, *syynge*, *suspiracio*.—*Pr. Pv.*

SITHES. Times. A. S., *sithe*; Moes. Goth., *siutha*.

Sex *sithe* on is sex (six times one is six.)—*Capgrave*. *Sithe vicia*.—*Pr. Pv.*

Wishes for home a thousand *sithes* a day.—*Hall's Salires*, Book IV.

SIZZLE. The half-hiss, half-sigh of an animal, as of an owl; the

effervescence of brisk beer; to dry and shrivel up with hissing, by the action of fire on some greasy, or juicy substance. Dut., *sissen*.

Yeast is called *sizzing*, from the sound of working beer.—Ray. Gr., *sizo*.

SKAVELL. A small spade or skuppet used in draining, and in out-hawling or feying narrow-bottomed ditches. It differs from a spade in having its sides slightly turned up.

With skuppet and *skavell*, that marsh men allow.—Tusser.

Fris., *skofel*; Su.-Goth., *skuffel*; Sw., *skofvel*.

SKELP. In Suffolk, *skelf*, a blow. 'To kick with violence.'—

Forby. Isl., *skellr*, a crack, smack; Ger., *schell*, a box on the ear.

SKREW. To start aside, as scared. Dan., *skeis*, to swerve; Ger., *scheu*, timorous, skittish.

Some wenches come vnbrased,

Wyth theyr naked pappes

It wygges and it waggas,

A sorte of foule drabbes,

Some be flybyttten.

Some huswyves come vnbrased,

That flyppes and flappes;

Lyke tawny saffron bagges;

All scurvy with scabbes;

Some skewed as a kitten.—Skelton.

Fable of an old Crab and a Young.—'Child, (says the mother,) you must use yourself to walk strait, without skiewing and shailing so every step you set.' 'Pray mother, (says the young crab) do but set the example yourself and I'll follow ye.'—*L'Estrange's Esop.*

SKILLET. The thin brass perforated implement used for skimming or fletting (A. S., *flet*, cream; Isl., *fleyta*, to skim off) the cream off milk. A small brass saucepan with a long handle. A. S., *scell*, hollow.

Skeel, N. Ang., is a milk or water pail, contracting upwards and usually borne on the head with a pad.

Some ran a good trot,

With a *skellet* or a pot.—Skelton.

Item, I giue to Elizabeth my daughter, my panne, a skommer, a gredyrone, a spitte, a *skillet* panne.—Bury Wills, (William Herde, shepherd, 1559.) Vessels usually made of bell metal, Gage Rokewode. *Sceletta*, a little bell for a church steeple, whence our vessels, called *skillets*, usually made of bell metal.—*Philips' New World of Worlds*, 1678.

SKIMMER. To flutter, gleam, flicker. Isl., *skima*; Dan., *skimten*, a glimmering; Ger., *schimmer*. *Skime*, to look askint, N. Ang.

SKINCH. To stint, pinch, give short commons.

Ger., *schinden*, to exact from, rape and scrape, skin a flint; Dan., *skinden*, to fleece.

SKINK. I.—To serve at table, particularly to serve the guests with drink. A. S., *scencan*, to give drink; Isl., *skenkr*, a gift, drink; Dan., *skienk*, a buffet, *skienke*; Su.-Goth., *skaenka*, to pour out liquor. '*Skenkyn Drynke*, propino.'—*Pr. Pv.* II.—To squint, peer or spy about. Norfolk, *skime*; Dan., *skinsyge*, jealous, watchful.

In these, in the two last, and in several previous examples the tendency on the East coast to employ the Norse hardened *k* in preference to the Teutonic *ch* is noticeable, whilst in others, (as under *sh*) it is reversed.

SKIP OR SKEP. A basket. A bee-hive, Sc. Dan., *skieppe*.

A pitch-fork, a dung-fork, sieve, *skep*, and a bin.—Tusser.

Gael., *sgeip*; A. S., *scep*; Sw., *skeppa*; '*skeppe*, sporta, a plaited basket.'—*Pr. Pv.* Lat., *scappa*.

SKIP-JACK. A pert whipper-snapper. Merry thought of a fowl.

Now 'tis but odde to think how such a flicketing, *skip-jackly* thing as that is, which is always so much upon the snatches.—*Fairfax*.

SKIRL. To *shrivel* up from excessive heat, as parchment, card, or paper before the fire. *Isl.*, *skraele*, to scorch, wither up; *Goth.*, *skior*, fire.

SKIWANIKIN, SKIWINKIN. Awry, crooked, warped. *Dan.*, *skie*; *Dut.*, *zwanken*, to distort.

SKIZZLE. A large marble taw rolled at others placed in a ring. *It.*, *schizzare*, to spin, squirt forth.

SKOPPOLOIT. Play, romps, frolicking. *O. Eng.*, *scoppe*, a leap, skip. 'What ha made yeow sa long?' 'Why, I habin havin a game a *skoppoloit* along i th' man Jenkins i th' chatch yahd.' Much used at Ipswich. *Scope*, to loiter, has been surmised as its origin.—*Halliwel*.

The Gael. has *sgiball*, quick, active, nimble; the *Isl.*, *skopa*, to take a run; *Sw.*, *skutta*, to leap; *O. Eng.*, *scoppe*. *Sooperloit*, play time. *South Eng.*

SKRANSH. To crunch, munch, or grind audibly between the teeth hard fruit or raw vegetables, biscuit, &c. *It.*, *granciare*.

Sc., *crinch*; *Fr.*, *grincer*. *Skrunchlen*, a small green shrivelled apple.

SKROWJ. To push, squeeze, crowd up. *Gael.*, *sgrog*, to compress, squeeze. *Ger.*, *schrauben*.

SKRUSSLE. The hard crackling skin of a roast loin of pork, breast of veal, &c.; *Dan.*, *kruse*, *krusul*, crisp.

SKULL. Probably the plaice. *Sw.*, *skolla*, a plaice.

Bret., *bretcocke* and *skulls*, comparable in taste and delicacy unto the sole.—*Sir T. Browne*, *IV*, 331. *Skulls* may possibly be the *scald-fish* or *megrin*, one of the smallest of the flat-fish tribe.

SKUPPATT. The handle of a spade.

Scuffet, a smith's fire shovel, *Sc.*; *Belg.*, *schup*, a spade. *Shuppick*, a hay-fork, *Heref.* *Ger.*, *schuppen*, to work with a shovel.

SKUTTLE. A shallow basket like a bowl. *Skuttles*, a ship's hatches.

Skuttle, a skreen for dressing corn, i. e., a large, broad and shallow shovel for casting threshed corn from one side of the barn to the other, that light grains and dust may fall short. *I.*—*Dut.*, *schotel*, *schooltel*, an oven peel, a platter; *Lat.*, *scutella*. *II.*—*O. Fr.*, *escoutilles*.

A *skuttle* or skreen to rid soil from the corn.—*Tusser*.

'The night was not very dark, and one of the Mariners was gotten into the *skuttle* (I think that's the name on't) at the main-mast-top to see if he could make any land.—*L'Estrange's Erasmus' Colloquies*.

SKUTY. In small irregular pieces; *A. S.*, *scyt*; *Su.-Goth.*, *schoet*, an angle.

SLAB. *I.*—The outer cut of timber taken off to square it for sawing into planks. *Wel.*, *llab*, a flag or thin strip, *yslab*; *A. S.*, *slaf*. *II.*—A bricklayer's labourer, a drudge; *Wel.*, *yslabi*.

Save *slab* of thy timber for stable and sty.—*Tusser*.

SLABBY. Dirty, refuse, pappy, dabby, sloppy, muggy, puggy, miry. *Gael.*, *slaib*, mire, sediment, filth. *Dut.*, *slabberen*.

SLADE. A small, open hanging wood, called also a *shaw*. In *Scot.* a hollow, dingle; *A. S.*, *slæd*; *Isl.*, *slaed*, a valley, also a green road. In *Essex* applied to a dried water-course.

Slade, ground sloping towards the sea.—*Pen. of Gower*. See p. 502.

'And satyrs that in *slades* and gloomy dimbles dwell.'—*Drayton*.

Slade, *N. Ang.*, a breadth of green sward in ploughed land, or in plantations.

SLADE. To carry on a sledge, to slide. *Dan.*, *slæde*, a sledge.

Slæde, (instrument) to drawe wythe.—*Pr. Pv.* *Su.-Goth.*, *slada*; *Wel.*, *ysled*.

SLAKE. Leisure, opportunity, slackness. *Isl.*, *slakr*

SLAM. Lanky and thin. Fr., *esclam*, gaunt, thin bellied.

A *slam*, thin-gutted fox made a hard shift to wriggle his body into a hen-roost.—*L'Estrange's Æsop*.

SLAMMAKEN. A gawky, dawdling, untidy wench. 'A great *slammakin* mauther.' Dan., *slam*, dirty; Su-Goth., *slem*, with the augmentative *ock*. Dut., *slabbaken*, to dawdle; Isl., *slyma*.

'A *slammakin* lass,' a big, sprawling, untidy trollop.—*Lake Dial*.

SLAR, SLARE. To bedaub. Isl., *slor*, filth, fish refuse; Ger., *slorig*.

Store or *sloor*, clay; *sloryed* cenosus. (dirty)—*Pr. Pv.* Isl., *slauka*.

Slairking, daubing with the finger, Whitby. To cleanse carelessly. 'T'nt horf wshed; nobbut just *slared* ower, Leeds. Fries., *sloeren*. *Slurry*, the drip of a grindstone, Salop.

SLATS. Dark blue ooze, left by the ebb of the sea. Dan., *slat*.

Slothe, where water stondaythe aftyre reyne.—*Pr. Pv.*

SLATTER. To wash carelessly, splashing the water about.

Lanc., *slat*, to spill water about; Wel., *yslotian*, to paddle, dabble; Dan., *slatter*, slops; Ger., *sletse*, a slattern; Prov. Ger., *schlottern*, to dabble in wet. *Sloteron*, or defowlyn.—*Pv. Pv.* Fries., *sladderig*.

SLATTERING WEATHER. *Slavering*, continuance of slight rain.

Some go streight thyder

Be it *slaty* or *slyder*;

They hold the hye waye,

They care not what men say.—*Skelton*

SLAYS. Lanes or cuts through woods or coverts for rabbit shooting, netting, hunting, &c. See *hay-net*.

In other dial. applied to wood cut and laid in rows for tying up.

O. Fr., *esclayer*, to make a way through; Lapp., *släwet*, to strike through.

SLAZY. Of loose texture, flimsy, easily torn and worn out.

Cor. of Silesian, whose manufacturers were formerly so stigmatized, says Forby; but the Isl. has *slasa*, damaged, impaired, come to grief. Su-Goth., *slosa*, dilapidare; O. H. Ger., *slenzen*, to break in pieces.

Sleeze, to separate, come apart easily, applied to badly woven cloth, Somerset.

I cannot well away with such *sleazy* stuff, with such cobweb compositions, where there is no strength of matter!—*Howell's Familiar Letters*, 1650.

SLEEPER.—I. The stump or stub of a tree left in the ground.

—II. The beams under barn and other floors. Hence railway

sleepers. A. S., *slepan*, to put on, to impose. III.—A rushlight.

SLENT. A deep puddle, any small pit in a common or plain.

The Scand. senses of *slent* are stagnant, torpid.

SLICK. SLICKEN. To make smooth, polish. *Slyke* or smooth.—

Pr. Pv. Ger., *slichten*. *Slick*, smooth, shining, clear entirely;

slick off, right off. A popular Americanism. *Slick*, rabbits'

down; *slike*, slippery, Heref. '*Slyke* or *smothe*.'—*Pr. Pv.*

Slekyston, linitorium.—*Pr. Pv.* In former times polished stones, called *slick-stones*, were used to smooth linen and paper, to finish starching, &c.

But paint and *slicke*, til fayrest face be foule.—*Gascoigne*.

Su-Goth., *sleka* to lick; Isl., *slikja*, to polish, make to glisten. *Sleker* homo blandus qui suis blanditiis alios captat.—*Thre's Su-Goth Lex*.

SLIDDER. To slide, slip along. Dut., *slidderen*. '*Slyderyn labo*.'

—*Pr. Pv.* Su-Goth., *sliddrig*, slippery; Isl., *slidrir* to slide.

Some go strayghte thyther, Be it *slaty* or *slider*.—*Skelton's Elinour Rumming*

SLIFT, SLIVER.—I. The fleshy part of the leg of beef. II.—A

slip of a growing plant or shrub. A. S., *slifan*; Wel., *ysleivyn*.

SLIGHT. To wear and tear, use up. Pret., *slat*; past., *slitten*.

'You'll soon *slight* up that thin coat.' Dut., *sligheten*, to wear.

—*Wright*.

SLIMSLACKET. Of very thin texture, loose, and flaccid; *slimsy*, lazy, dawdling. Dan., *slattet*, loose, flabby.

Su.-Goth., *slak*; Wel., *yslac*; A.S., *slac*, lax; Isl., *slæmr*; Dan., *slæm*, bad, ill.

SLINK.—I. Lank, slender, gawky. Scot., *slinkiè*; Dan., *slunken*, gaunt, scraggy. II.—To suffer abortion, applied to cows only; Ger., *schlenken*, to cast out; Su.-Goth., *slincka*; *slink*-veal, the flesh of such an abortion, known as *bobby*. Sw., *slyna*, carrion.

Staggering Bob, the name given by butchers to very young calves, Chesh. dial.

The cow *slinks* her calf, the mare *slips* her foal, the ewe *warps* her lamb.

I.—Sc., *slank*; Eng., *lank*; Belg., *slanck*.

SLOD. To wade through mire, half-dissolved snow, &c. Isl., *slod*, a foot-print, rut. *Slodda*, to trudge through mud. Dan., *slud*, sleet; Gael. and Wel., *slod*, a puddle; Isl., *slödr*. II.—A short cake, baked before bread goes into the oven.

Sloods, deep cart ruts, Chesh. *Slothe*, where fowle water stonythe.—*Pr. Pv.*

SLOFF. To swallow greedily and slovenly. '*Sloffynge* or on-gentyll etynge.—*Pr. Pv.* Dut., *sloef*, a sloven; Ger., *soff*; Sw., *sluskig*.

SLOON. The sloe. 'I sah, bawh, where ar yeow a gooen?' 'Why, a *sloonen*.' 'Her eyes are as black as *sloons*. A. S., *slan*; Dan., *slaaen*.

Mid-Ang., *slon*; Oxfordsh., *slags*; in Kent, Salop, Wilts., *slans*.

SLOP. The white hempen smock-frock, reaching mid-leg, worn for many centuries past by farm labourers. A. S., *slop*, an overgarment. '*Sloppe*, garment.'—*Pr. Pv.*

A slender *slop*, close crouched to your dock.—*Gascoigne*, 1572.

Item paid for 11j yerds of blankett for a petycott and a peyre of *slopps* for the fool of the kechin, 1js., vjd.—*L'Estrange Household Accounts*, 1530.

SLOP. Underwood, *loppings*. Ger., *laub*, foliage, *lauben*, to strip off leaves. Su.-Goth., *lopa*.

SLUB, SLUBBER. Thick, slabby mire. To swallow, making a noise with the throat or lips. Swed., *slabba*; Dan., *slubbre*; Lat., *labrum*, lip; It., *labbro*; Teut., *slabben*.

Now every trade hath his sleights to *slubber* up his worke to the eye, and to make it good to the sale, howsoever it proves in the wearing.—*Greene's Quip for an upstart Courtier*.

Noble Cæsarean Charlemain Herring! Pliny and Gesner were to blame they *slubbed* thee over so negligently.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

Professe, some will say it is hypocrisie; walk accurately, and then it is but singularity; give almes, then see his vaine glory; give not to some, (it may be unworthy) then there is your faith without charity; preach God's Word plainly, and it is but carelesse *slubbering*; if elaborately, then see his affectation.—*Rogers' Lost Sheep*.

Some there were (in fine) that would have fetcht a man's guts up at's mouth to see them, with their masques of after-birth, and with their menstruous *slübb-slobbers*.—*L'Estrange's Quevedo*.

SLUG. Said of heavy surf, tumbling in with an off-shore wind, or a calm.

Slagg. Su.-Goth., Isl., and Teut., has the senses of rough weather, of rude assault, to smite, strike, &c. *Slagga*, Su.-Goth., to buffet with frequent heavy strokes as on an anvil.

SLUG-HORN. One short and ill-formed, stunted and turned downwards. Also called *snail-horned*.

SLUMP. To sink suddenly and deep into mud or rotten ground.

A *slumpy* meadow, wet and boggy. To *slump*, to slip or fall plump down in a wet or dirty place.

'*Slump* (having the primary meaning of a shapeless lump), with us and with the Danes and Saxons, is used to denote an accidental fall.'—*Thre's Su-Goth., Gloss*, 1769. Dan., *slumpe*, to stumble; Fris., *slumpe*, a fall; 'in een *slump*, or *rumpeslump*,' all in a heap. Ger., *sumpf*, a swamp; *sumpfen*, to sink into a bog. Gael., *sluid*, a puddle. In use in New England.

In Susquehanna's woods when timber brash,

Slumps in the flood with many a hideous crash.—*American Pastoral*.

SLUR, SLURRY. Loose, thin, almost fluid mud. See *slar*.

SLURRUP. To swallow greedily any liquid. N. Ang., *slorp*; Dut., *slurpen*; Isl., *slupra*. Also O. H. G., *slorpe*, a whirlpool; Dan., *slurk*, a gulp.

SLUSH. I.—Loose mud. Dut., *sluyse*. II.—Filthy talk, a *slushy* fellow, foul-mouthed. Su.-Goth., *slask*, humor sordidus.

Under *st* and *gl* groups of word have been noticed indicative of the action upon our senses of air and fire in movement. Under *sl* occur a number similarly expressive of water, conveying the nicest gradations of its sound, seeming, or sensation, whether *slabbering*, *slaking*, *slattering*, *slenty*, *slimy*, *slippery*, *slobbery*, *sloppy*, *sloughy*, *sluicing*, *slurried*, &c., with their numerous dialectic off shoots derived from Scandinavian roots. It is observable that the prefix *sl* is foreign to the Romance languages.

SMALE. A hare's form. *Smile*, the small gap in a fence, made by hares or rabbits. A. S., *smygela*, a coney hole.—*Wright*.

SMART. As a carrot, very smart indeed.—*Essex*.

SMASHER. An employer who sends his men to the truck shop.

SMEATH. An open level of considerable extent, as *Markam Smeath*, the scene of the Swaffham Coursing Meeting, pronounced *smee*. '*Smethe*,' *Pr. Pv.* A. S., *smæthe*, smooth, even.

SMEB. Herring fry, used for bait. Wild ducks of the first year's plumage are called *smee*—small things. Su.-Goth., *smæ*, small; Sw. *små-fisk*, fry.

In Essex is a fysshe, called a *smie*, which if he be longe kept will turn to water.—*Elyot's Dict.*, 1598.

SMICK, SMICKET. Diminutives of smock or shift.

SMITHER. Light small rain, or smur. A Scotch mist. 'Dew it rain?' 'No, ta *smithier*.' Plat. Dut., *smetten*; Dut., *smetje*, a little spot; in E. Anglia, a **SMOTCH**. *Smithers*, fragments, atoms, Mid Anglia.

SMOCK MILL. A windmill standing on wooden supports.

So called from its shape resembling that garment.—*Forby*.

SMOTCH. To stain, defile. 'I have *smotched* my fingers with *crook*—which see.' Sw., *smutsig*; Ger., *schmutz*; Fris., *smodse*. Wel., *ysmot*.

'And eke for she was somdel smoterlich

She was as digne as water in a ditch.

—*Chaucer's Norfolk Reve's Tale*.

SMOUCHER. A smuggler. A. S., *smuan*, *smugan*, to creep privily. Old Norse *smocka*; Fris., *smucken*; Eng., *smuggle*.

SMOULD. *Ammodytes lancea*. Lin. The sand launce.

The sand-eels, commonly called *smoulds*, taken out of the sea sand with

forks and rakes about Blakeney and Burnham, a small, round, slender fish, about three or four inches long, as big as a small tobacco pipe; a very dainty dish.—*Sir T. Browne*.

A valuable bait for turbot. On some coasts called a wriggle.

SMOUSE. A Jew.—Suffolk. Fries., *smous*.

A term which seems to have puzzled *Moore*. It is an old Dutch name for a German Jew, so called, because many being named Moses, they pronounced it in Holland *Mousyee*.

SMOUSE, SMEWSE. The track above ground of a hare through a fence or bank. The underground way of a rabbit through a bank is called *throushot*. Fr., *musse*, a secret corner, privie hiding place.—*Cotgr.* A hare *smoot* or creeping hole, Cumb.

'Tis as hard to find a hare without a *muse*, as a woman without a *scuse*.—*Greene's Thieves Falling Out*.

SMORE. To abound, swarm. A swarm of bees are said to come *smoring* out of the hive; A. S., *smoran*, to stifle. 'Smore, wythe smeke,' *Pr. Pv.*

SMOUCH. A coarse kiss. To kiss with a loud smack; Fries., a *smok*; Ger., *schmucken*, to kiss; *schmatz*, a kiss.

'What bussing, what *smouching* and slabbering one of another.'—*Stubbs' Anatomy of Abuses*, 1583.

SMUG, SMUCK. To dress up neatly, to *smudge* or smarten up. Dan., *smuk*; Dut., *smuk*, ornament, finery.

He hath so lick't and *smug'd* it up, cast such a gloss and varnish on it.—*Rogers' Lost Sheep*.

In the craft of catching, or taking and *smudging* it, merchant and chapmanable as it should be it sets a work thousands who live gaily well by what in some few weeks they scratch up then, and come to bear office of Questman and scavenger in the parish where they dwell.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

SMUR. Fine drizzling rain. Isl., *smyr*; Dan., *smyre*, to smear; Belg., *smoor*.

SNAFFLED. Said of ripe corn beat down by wind or hail, which is also termed nickled, baffled, shuckled, and waited.

Sw., *snafta*, to stumble, fall; Fl., *sneuvelen*.

SNAG. A rough knob or gnarl on a tree, the shortened part or stump of pruned boughs; a process called *snag* pruning, in distinction from close pruning. Isl., *snagi*, crooked, gnarled; Dut., *snoeigen*, to prune.

One of the numerous East Anglicisms which have found wide currency in America. On the Western rivers it marks the great hidden danger of their navigation, the projecting stumps or branches of sunken trees.

Snag, to hew or cut roughly with an axe; N. Ang., to lop off branches.—*Teesdale*. 'I have *snagged* my gown,' i.e., caught and torn it against a nail or thorn.—Mid. Ang. *snag*, a tooth, *Somerset*, *snaggle-toothed*, or gag-toothed.—*Nomenclator*, 1585.

How much more then should we beware of *snagging* and snarling at God's secrets.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

Search them presently, (cry'd the Intermedler) squeeze the balls of their eyes, and let their gums be examined, you'll find *snaggs*, stumps, or roots, or enough of somewhat or other there to spoil the jest.—*L'Estrange's Quevedo*.

SNAGGY. Morose, snappish, snarly. 'How is a' this morning?' 'Kiender *snaggy*.' 'Why, he's got the *snags*.'

Gael., *cnagachd*, knottness, knobbiness, sternness.

SNAP YOUR EYE. To wink or squint.

SNARL. To twist, entangle, knot together, as a skein in winding off. Isl., *snarla*, to weave, entwine; Dan., *snerle*, bind-weed.

'Snarynge, or *snarlynge*, or *rufflynge*,' *Pr. Pv.* Ger., *snarren*.

Snock-snarled, entangled; N. Ang., *snarrel*, a hard knot; Cumb., *nurled*, twisted; *nurly*, ill-tempered; *narle*, a knot; Mid. Ang. *Norle*.—*Craven*.

Her black, dangling tresses about her shoulders, with her ivory comb in-snarled in them.—*Nashe's Tentsen Stuff*.

Till the creature creep in too farre, the heart wax wanton and defiled; yea so *snarled* that it must cost her the vomiting of her morsels ere she can recover a cleare appetite again.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

'Let Hymen's easy *snarls* be quite forgot.'—*Quarles*.

Whence a snail, whose eggs have other kind of foes, besets them with other kind of shield and buckler. Their setting being the casing or housing such a tickleish piece of workmanship that wind and weather may not ruffle and *snarle* it, or any stragling bodies clutter up its rooms and stifle it.—*Fairfax*.

It suits the men of business, whose affairs are getting into what is called a '*snarl*' or entanglement, in consequence of the depreciation of the currency.—*Times New York Correspondent*, Sept. 2, 1864.

SNAST. The burnt portion of the wick of a candle, the snuff. In Suff. *sneest*. *Gnaste*—*Pr. Pv.* Dan., *snause*, to dirty, soil, *snuus*, *snauset*, snuff; Isl., *snatt*. *Snaich*, a thief in a candle; *snace*, candle snuff.

But of lower consideration is the common fortelling of strangers from the fungous particles about the wicks of candles, which only signifieth a moist and pluvius air about them, hindering the avolation of the light and favillous particles; whereupon they are forced to settle upon the *snast*.—*Sir T. Browne's Vulgar Errors*.

SNARSTED. scorned, defied. **SNASTY**, *i. e.*, to take a thing in snuff, to be angry, captious, passionate. Su.-Goth., *snäsn*, to huff, snub, upbraid.

SNEATH, or SNAITHE. The crooked pole or handle of a scythe.

A. S., *snæd* and *sneath*, from the root Su.-Goth., *sned*, oblique;

Isl., *sneida*, to twist, be awry. *Sned* is still used in Derbyshire.

Snathe to prune or lop, N. Ang., from A. S. *snithan*, to cut.

SNIB. To snub, cut a person short. N. Ang., *snape*; Isl., *sneipa*.

The kyng cleped hem to his presens, and *snybbed* hem.—*Capgrave*.

Others by their *snibbing* and chiding, or over-bearing them, doe blast that bud which else would blossome and beare.—*Rogers' Naaman*.

SNICKER-SNEE. A large clasp-knife. Dut., *snicker-snee*.

Sc., *snagger-snee*, see *snag* above; Dut., *snee*, knife edge, a gash; Ger., *schnecken*, to cut. *Snick*, a cut, notch.—*Craven*.

I do verily bear myself in hand, that if the humor of huffing be but a little further cocker'd and more warmed, the *Leyden* gown must needs take place of the long robe at Cambridge and Oxford instead of the *side thing*, the *thing by the side*, and *snicking* and *sneeing* will be nothing else in the world but writing of Book *a la mode d'Angleterre*.—*Fairfax*.

But they'l ere long come to themselves you'l see,

When we in earnest are at *snick a snee*.—*Norfolk Drollery*, 1673.

SNICKLE, SNITTLE, SNIDDLE. A slip-knot, a double knot in form of a bow. In Derbyshire to *snickle* hares is to snare them.

A. S., *snicendne*, creeping; Ger., *schmirkel*, to form into spirals; *schnicken*, to move quickly; *schneide*, a noose, snarl.

SNIDDLE. Mown or cut green rushes, sedges. Su.-Goth., *snida*, to cut. Applied also to stubble, adds Pegge.

Sniddle or hassocks, the long grass which grows in marshy places. *Aira cæspitosa*, Lin.—Chesh. Long coarse grass, the *Poa aquatica* of botanists, common in ditches and gutters.—Salop.

SNIPPOCK. A very small morsel. L. Ger., *snippen*, to clip off.

SNOOD. The part of a fishing line to which the hook is tied.

Sw., *snoe*, string, line; Dan., *snoe*, to twist, twine; Wel., *ysnoden*, a hair lace, a fillet.

SNOUL. A short, thick cut from the crusty part of a loaf or of a cheese. Ger., *schneiden*, to cut; L. Ger., *snoeyen*, to lop off.

Snoul, a small quantity, Sussex.

In the vocabulary of dialectic words, found in the little Peninsula of Gower, (quoted in Latham's Eng. Lang., p. 393) believed to have been imported by the East Anglian colonists, temp. Hen. I, occurs, 'soul, cheese, butter, &c., as eaten with bread.' Is it the above? or is it rather the O. Eng. *sowel*, and der. either from the O. Fr., *saoul*, to stuff with food, or the Dan., *soul*, victual, provisions? *Sowl*, aught eaten with bread.—Lanc. *Sowle*, any liquid eaten with bread.—Craven. See *soil* infra.

SNUCK. To smell, sniff up. L. Ger., *snicken*.

SNUDGE. I.—Implies motion, as brisk as an aged person may use, 'The old woman went *snudging* along, i. e., snugly wrapped up.—

Forby, who, with *Miss Gurney*, derives from A.S. *snude*, celeriter.

II.—To *snudge* over the fire, to creep and cower close to it. 'I heent bin out—I ha' bin *snudging* over the fire all day.—*Moor*.

Under *snabb*, celer, agilis, *Ihre*, in his *Su.-Goth. Gloss.*, has as cognates A.S., *snude*, celeriter; Sax. *snedig*, celer; Isl., *snudur*, citius.

The der. may be A.S., *snuck*, past part. of *snican*, to sneak, creep. Dan., *sniger*.

The *Su.-Goth.* has *snudda*, to handle gently, and the Prov. Ger., *schnudeln*, to do imperfectly.

SNUDGING. Penurious, greedy, sordid; (Lanc., *snidgy*.) *snudge*, shuffling; *snigging*, sneaking. A.S., *snid*; Dan., *snedig*, cunning.

Where if he were a *snudge* to spare a groate.—*Gascoigne, Fruites of Warre*.

And least esteemes the greedie *snudge*, which goes

To gayne good golde, without respect of fame.—*Id.*

Those grey-beard huddle-duddles and crusty-cum-twanges were struck with such stinging remorse of their miserable Euclionism and *snudgery*, that he was not yet cold in his grave, but they challenged him to be born amongst them.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

Others are so dangerously worldly, *snigging* and biting usurers, hard and oppressing, or defrauding the simpler in their bargaines, cannot abide any should go out of their fingers without a nip.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

SNUFFS OF WEATHER. Fits of rough, gusty, squally weather.

There is light sowne for the righteous, though it lie long in the moulds by reason of cold *snuffes* of weather, yet a sweet day at last will come, and a sunshine to fetch it up.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

SNURLE. A cold in the head, to snort; to talk through the nose.

Snuri, a nostril, N. Ang. Prov. Ger., *schnau*, the nose, *schnüren*, to snuffle; Isl., *snörla*.

Item Apollo that whirllid up in his chare,

That made sum to *snurre* and snuf in the wynde,—*Skelton*

SNUSKIN. A nicety, tid bit.

Dan., *snaske*, to champ one's food with a smacking noise.

SOAK. To bake thoroughly, applied to bread.

SOB. To wipe or suck up any liquid. 'Sob it up.' Cor. of *absorb*.

The land is very *sobby*, soaked with wet. In Warwick, *sobbed*.—*Miss Baker*.

SOCK. Moist on the surface, socky, soaking. A.S., *socian*; Wel., *svg*.

Sock-dyke, a ditch on the inside of a marsh embankment to carry off the water which soaks through.—*Wright*. In Dorset., *sog*; Dut., *zagt*, washy.

SODGER. The whelk shell-fish. Also a brownish red beetle.

SOE. A large tub carried by two men on a stout staff or stang, passing through two iron rings at the top, for carrying water, grains, hogwash, &c.

Fr., *seau*, a water-pail. O. Fr., *seille*, Provencal, *selh*, Portuguese, *selha*.

SOIL to, **SOILING**. The last fattening given to fowls when taken from the barn door and cooped for a few days. Old Fr., *saoul*, to glut, stuff full; O. Eng., *soyled*, pampered, high fed, said of horses.

SOLING. An assault, a beating, and

SOLL, **SOWLE**. To seize by the ear. Applied chiefly to swine.

'Wool 'a *sowle* a hog? is a frequent enquiry into the qualification of a dog. A low bred mongrel will attack the *porcus a posteriori*; but this is not genuine *sowleing*, and a boy would blush to own so base an animal. 'He'll go, he says, and *sowle* the porter of Rome gates by the ears.'—*Coriolanus*, iv. 5. The last three words would be redundant to a Suffolk audience.—*Moor*.

Skinner's der. from *sow* to pull by the ears as dogs do *sowen* (swine), although accepted by lexicographers and Shaksp. commentators, is unsatisfactory. *Minsheu's*, though copious, are no better.

Gotten a good *sowling*, been severely dressed down. *Sowl*, to duck, to plunge in water, rinse well. 'Come goa gie thesen a good *sowling*, says a mother to a sooty child.—*Leeds and Craven dial*. *Sowl*, to agitate in water for cleansing.—*Whitby*.

To take *soil* is an old hunting term for taking to the water when the game is driven to that refuge. Fr., *souiller*, to wallow in the mire; A. S., *sol*, mire, a place to wallow in.

SOLLER. A loft, upper room, now usually confined to a belfry.

Gael., *solair*; Old Fr., *solier*. 'Solere or lofte,' *Pr. Pv*.

Anything placed in an upper room is said to be laid on the *soller*.—*Heref. Dial*. Dut., *zolder*, a garret. *Soler*, a high seat, Cornwall.

And namely ther was a gret college,

Me clepe the *soler* hall at Cantebrege.

—*Chaucer's Norfolk Reve's Tale*.

The ij chambrys with the *soler* above in the end of the halle towards my gardeyn, Bury Wells (John Baret, 1463).

'Some skilfully drieth their hops on a kell,

And some on a *soller* oft turning them well.'—*Tusser*.

At Christmas, good husbands have corn on the ground.

In barn and in *soller* worth many a pound.—*Tusser*.

SOLLOP. To lounge, dawdle about; var. of lollop.

SORDS. Filth, washings, off-scourings. Lat., *sordes*; Sw., *sörja*, dirt, filth.

SORELY. Exceedingly. 'He'll be sorely pleased. Ger., *sehr*, very.

In this tyme begunne men *sore* to multiplie.—*Capgrave*.

SOSS, **SUSS**. I.—A jumble, or mixed mess of food; anything fouled or muddled. '*Sos*, howndysmete,' *Pr. Pv*. II.—To drink.

III.—*Soss* also means a noise. 'It came down with a *soos*.'

Soss, to fall with a thud; *soassing*, heavy, sodden drinking; to be *soassing* in bed, to lie lazily stuffing there.—*Lake Dial*.

Soss, 'full *sowce*' a heavy, clumsy fall, N. Ang; to lap like a dog, Teesdale; to plunge into water; a boiled mess for a cow, Cumb.; *sosslings*, tea leaves, Northants.

I.—Gael., *sos*, a mixture of food for dogs, an untidy mess. II.—Ger., *soff*, drinking, guzzling; Gael., *sas*, to glut III.—Su.-Goth., *susa*; L. Ger., *suiizen*; Fl., *suyzen*, to make a whizzing noise.

SOTTER. To boil gently, simmer, said of thick mixtures; also N. Ang. A. S., *seothan*; Isl., *sioda*.

SORZLE, SOZZLE. To intermingle confusedly. *Sorzel*, *s.*, an odd heterogeneous mixture. Var. of *soss*.

Sw., *sörja*, to mix cattle food with water or wash.

SOUPINGS. Any sort of spoon meat. '*Soup* it up.' Sw., *supa*.

Even as God tried the lappers of water from the *soopers* of it, for Gideon, so will he try thee.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*. Dut., *zuypen*.

SPANK. To move swiftly and stoutly. *Spanking*, striding along stoutly, moving nimbly. Also shewy, conspicuous, specially if large.—*Forby*. Dan., *spanke*, to strut, stalk. Su.-Goth., *spinkog*; Isl., *spinka*, slender.

Spanker, N. Ang. and Sc., is applied to a tall well-made woman. A *spanker-ing* hizzie, a tall nimble girl. *Spankers*, long and thin legs. *Spanky*, frisking, dashing. Of this *spunky* may be a cor. The Wel. has *ysponc*, a jerk, spirt, a skip, bound; *ysponciaw*, to bound sharply. *Spankin* provoking; also dashing, Lanc.

Seldom said in a disrespectful sense, remarks *Moor*. 'A spankin gal.' 'A spankin hoss.' 'She's a spanker, i' fags.' We have several similar words applicable to our healthy, buxom damsels, he adds—a *bonnka*, a bouncer, a smasher gal, or smacken, slashen, smashen, swashen, strappen, swingen, swhacken, splashen, dashen, wappen, &c.

These vigorous similes nearly all appear derived from the tingling associations connected with the hearty buffet or loud resounding *smack* dealt by these sturdy Phillises, on fit occasion to their too forward Corydons.

Various der. have been suggested, as the Dut., *spannen*, to stretch out; A. S., *spannan*; also the Gael., *spangach*, of metal, anything shining or sparkling; but the original sense seems to be the Scand. one of tall, slender, and long legged.

SPALT, SPARCH. Brittle, said of dry wood, &c., hence careless, heedless, pert, saucy, giddy, and frail. Ger. and Dan., *spalt*; Dut., *spalten*; Gael., *spealt*. *Spalsky*, snappy, brittle, Northants.

'*Spalle*, or chyppe, *spelke*, fissula; *spelle*, broke bonys or other thyngys; *spelke*, *spelkyn*,' *Pr. Pv.* *Spalls*, chips, Devon; Su.-Goth., *spiaell*. *Spelk*, to set a broken bone, Yorks. Dut., *spalken*.

SPATE-BONE, SPAUT-BONE. The shoulder bone. In Suff., *spade-bone*.

Albanian, *spale*; Basque, *izpata*; Wel., *ysbawd*; O. Fr., *espalde*; It., *spalda*, Lat., *spatha*.—*Diez*.

SPAT. Oyster spawn. Su.-Goth., *spad*.

SPAWLE. To spit out with force; spittle, saliva. A. S., *spaw*.

Another while the well drenched, smoky Jew,

That stands in his own *spawl* above the shoe.—*Bp. Hall*.

Our Norwich, now upon her legs was a poor fisher-town, and the sea *spawled* and springed (sprinkled) up to her common stairs in Cowper Street.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

'To spit and *spawl* upon his sun-bright face.'—*Quarles' Emblems*.

SPECK. I.—The sole of a shoe, the heel is the heel-*speck*; *speckings*, large long nails. II.—the sole fish, from its resemblance in shape.—*Forby*.

'*Spek* is the name in the Cornish dialect for the *dorade*, (apparently the sea-bream or gilt-head).—*Gonidec's Bretonne Dict.*

SPECKE. The woodpecker. Ger., *specht*; Fr., *spicken*, to peck.
SPENDER. A consumer. 'Small spender,' one with little appetite.
SPERKET. A wooden peg to hang hats, &c., upon an iron hook.
 Var. of *perch*.

High on the *spirket* there it hung.—*Bloomfield's Horkey*.

SPILE. A wedge of wood, iron pointed, used in marl pits, &c.

Spile-peg, the wooden peg closing the air hole in barrels. Fris., *spile*, *Spelk*, a thatching pin, a splinter. N. Ang.; *spile*, a stake, Cumb; Su.-Goth., *spiale*. Gael., *speall*; A. S., *speld*; It., *spillo*.

Their silver spurs, or *spils* of broken spears.—*Hall's Satires, B. IV.*

His fellow went down for a rope to *spill* the foot of the sail, which was blown out.—*North's Lives, ii., 317.*

SPLACK-NUCK. A miser. Gael., *spiocach*.

SPOFFLE. To be over busy about little or nothing.

Beffleries, fooleries, mockeries, gulleries.—*Cotgr.* Ger., *buffeln*, to drudge,

SPONG. A long narrow slip of enclosed land. If planted called a squeach. *Spong*-water is a narrow streamlet. Isl., *sponn*; Sw., *spänna*, a stretching out.

Spong is Frisic—a little brook which can be stepped across, or the plank or gang-way over it. North Fris., a foot-step or path into a churchyard.

'*Swonge*, smal and long (or gawnte), *gracilis*,' *Pr. Pv.* Su.-Goth., *spang*, Isl., *spaung*, a plank, thin slice.

The tribe of Judah with a narrow *spong*, confined on the kingdom of Edom.

—*Fuller's Pisgah Sight of Palestine.*

In Salop dial. a *slang*; In Northants. a *spung*.

Hot-spong, a sudden warmth from the sun breaking through clouds.

SPOUCH. Sappy as wood. Possibly from the Ger. *speich*, spittle.

SPRAWLS. Small twigs or branches of trees. A. S., *sprædan*, to spread; *sprauta*, a twig; Wel., *ysbrigawl*, full of sprigs.

SPRAK. Brisk, alert. Isl., *sprækr*; Sc., *sprag*; Eng. and Yankee, *spry*. 'He is a good *sprag* memory.'—*Merry Wives, IV, 1.*

SPRAID. To sprinkle, bespatter, to moisten with spray.

SPRANK. A crack, flaw, or split in wood. Dan., *spragen*; Ger., *sprengen*, to split; *sprock*, crackling. *Sprunk*, to split, Essex.

SPRAT-MOWE. Herring gull. Ger., *mowe*. 'Sea-mowe byrd, alcedo.'—*Pr. Pv.*

SPRIT. A pole to push a boat forward. A. S., *spreot*; Isl., *sproti*. 'Sprete or qvante, contus,' *Pr. Pv.*

SPRUNNY. Neat, spruce, spry, a sweet-heart. Var. of *pruning*, the action of hawks and other birds trimming up their feathers. Sc., to *preen*. 'Sprunt, lively, brisk.'—*Phillips' World of Words.*

Sui.-Goth., *pren*; Isl., *prionn*; Ger., *pfreim*, a large pin, bodkin; Dut., *krul-priem*, a curling iron.

SPUD. I.—A small weeding spade at the end of a stick. Dan., *spyd*, a lance. 'Spudde, cultellus vilis,' *Pr. Pv.* Wel., *yspawd*.

II.—Any very diminutive person or thing; *spuddy*, stumpy.

Spuddle, to rake the ground, as chickens in search of food, Devon.

SPUNKY. Brisk, mettlesome; common in U. S. See *spank*.

SPURGE. To plaster with a thin coat of mortar between the rafters, without laths. A. S., *spæren*, plaster, *parget*.

Cor. of *parget*, the plaister of a wall. 'Pargetyng, spargetyng, or sparchyn of wallis.'—*Pr. Pv.* See *Way's* note upon. To *parget*, quasi *parietare*,

parietes cemento incrustare.—*Skinner*. Lat., *paries*, a wall, from Sansk. *pari*, around. It., *paretonio*, white fatty earth or clay, good for loam or daubing mortar, the name of the colour, houses, doors, or windows are commonly painted.—*Florio*, 1598. O. F., *pariette* for walles, blanchissure, I *parget* for whyte lyme.—*Palsg.*, 1530.

If ye have bestowed but a little sum in the glazing, paving, *parieting* of God's house, you shall find it in the church-window.—*Bp. Hall*—of the *Vain-glorious*.

SPURK. To brisken up. 'Come *spurk* up, here's your sweet-heart a comin.'—*Moor*. Wel., *percu*.

To *spurk* up, to spring or brisk up.—*Ray's S. and E. Words*.

SQUAB. To squeeze down, beat flat. Dan., *qvab*. Wel., *yswad*.

While we lay tumbling and tossing the sea-priest I told you of, *squabs* himself down directly upon our shoulders; it was a fat, heavy fellow, and we both of us cry'd out.—*L'Estrange's Erasmus Colloquies*.

SQUADDY. Thick set. Dan. and Ger., *qvader*.

He was a fatte, *squaddy* monke that had beene well fedde in some cloyster.—*Greene's Newses from Heaven and Hell*, 1593.

SQUAJ. To scourge, whip. 'A gon em a right good *squajen*, an a deserv'd it.'—*Moor*. A whipping top is a *squajen* top.

SQUALDERS. *Discophoræ Medusadæ*. Varieties of the jelly-fish.

Urtica marina, of divers kinds, some whereof called *squalders*.—*Sir T. Browne*.

SQUALLY. Said of corn or root crops broken by vacant, unproductive patches.

SQUAT. To settle, compose, quiet; from the *squatting* or settling down of the hare. It., *quatto*, crouched down; Fr., *cacher*.

An old word. *Moor* gives *squat* as meaning to settle; in Suffolk, a squatter is there a settler; but we, though no doubt taking the word from that county, always use it in a bad sense. Its meaning with us is to occupy another's land.—*Elwyn's Americanisms*. Wel., *yswatiaw*, to squat, lie flat.

SQUATTING PILLS. Opiates or composing pills. *Squat*, to quiet, M. Ang.

SQUIGGLE. To shake a fluid about the mouth with closed lips. In the U. S. to move about like an eel.

It., *squizzare*, to slip away like an eel.

SQUINANCY. Quinsey, used by Bp. Hall. '*Squwynacye*, sekenness, (sqwynsy), Fr. *Pv*. O. Fr., *squinancie*; Lat., *cynanche*.

'Som for glotonis al haf thare,
Als the *swynacy* that greves ful sare.'

—*Pricke of Conscience*, 1340.

SQUINDER. To burn and smoulder faintly as damp fuel, or as a candle with bad wick.

Ger., *schwinden*, to dwindle, decay, waste away; A. S., *swindan*.

SQUINNY. Lank, thin, narrow, *squinky*-guttled. Su.-Goth., *swinna*,

SQUOLK. A draught of liquor. An onomatopœia like *julk*.

SQUY BOBBLES. Difficulties conjured up, *quibbles*. 'He'd a bawt the home but for the lawyer's *squi-bobbles*.'—*Moor*.

STADDLE. What anything stands on, as the support of a corn stack, hay rick, &c., a bottom or foundation. Su.-Goth., *stad*; A. S., *stathol*. I.—Sax., *stadel*, a foundation; Wel., *ystadled*; Dut., *stathel*. Applied also to young trees left standing in thinning, to grow. *Stadles*, Lanc. and N. Ang., marks left by the small pox.

Then see it well *stadled* without and within.—*Tusser*.

The straightest ye know For *stadilles* let grow.—*Tusser*.

Leave growing for *stadles* the likest and best.—*Id.*

STAG.—I. A Wren. II. A Cock-turkey killed for the table in his second year. Isl. *steggi*, a drake, gander, or male of various birds; A. S., *steig*.

Steg-month, N. Ang.; or gander-month, E. Ang., the month of a woman's confinement.

STALE. The handle of a rake or long fork. Also the stalk or reed of hemp. A. S., *stælg*; Ger., *stiel*, a column, boll of a tree; Pl. Dut., *steel*, a stem, stalk; Dut., *steel*, a helve, handle.

'Like a broad shack-fork with a slender *stale*.'—*Hall's Satires*.

'*Stele* or stert of a vesselle, *ansa*, (a haft, handle), *Pr. Pv.*

STALE. A decoy, snare. '*Stale* of fowlynge or byrdys takynge.' *Pr. Pv.* Fr., *estaler*, to display, shew, *estalon*, a decoy.

Originally the counterfeit of a bird, set up to allure hawks and birds of prey. The more holy the person is, the more carefully doth Satan act by him, that by his *stale* he may ensnare us.—*Bishop Hall's Contemplations*. (Explained by the commentator of the recent S. P. C. K. ed., means.)

Neither was Ishbosheth any other than Abner's *stale*.—*Id.* (*Pretence*, interprets the same commentator.)

STAM. To astonish, overcome with wonder, to fairly stun.

Su.-Goth., *stimma*, to make an uproar; O. Ger. *stam*, a stunning noise, report, rumour, filling with surprise and fear. Ger. *ungestimm*, tempestuous, blustering. Fl. *stommelen*, to make a loud din; Dan., *stime*, to make an uproar, hubbub; Wal., *stamuss*, astounded; Fr., *estommi*; Salop, *stomber*.

But to break off from this so great a *stamme* to the mind.—*Fairfax*.

An Akenham rustic visiting the Suffolk coast for the first time, on his return from Aldborough was asked by his master what he had seen. 'Tha fare a rare lot o' water fur a small place like that' was his answer. 'Why John,' was the rejoinder, 'that's the sea.' 'Well I kuow'd ta war.' 'Well, and what did you think of it?' 'I dun know, Sir, ta fared in such *stammin'* agonies all th' time I war theer, Sir.'

At the same place, on the first night of the re-appearance of the great comet of Donati, a farmer who had just snuggled himself in bed, was abruptly roused by one of his serving men. 'Who's that?' 'Plase Sir, that's me.' 'What do you want?' 'Why, yar must come down, Sir, if yar plase.' 'What's the matter?' 'Yar must come down Sir, if yar plase.' Down came the farmer in sulky mood and was led out into the yard. 'Dew yar but look theer, Sir,' exclaimed the man excited, pointing to the comet, 'I feel wholly *stammed* if that theer star dont fare to ha' bust hisself.'

STAND. A flower-stalk. Swed., *sittande*.

STAND-HOLES TO. To rest content as one is. *Stated*, suited, Suff.

STANK. a dam, pond. Su.-Goth., *stång*, a lake, tank; Bret., *stank*, a fishpond. Fr., *étang*, Lat., *stagnare*, to stop, hinder.

Wel., *ystane*, that confines, limits. Eng., *staunch*, watertight.

Old Fr. *estancer*, to stay, stop; N. Ang., a *tank*. Cornish, *stan-conni*, to prop.

Item, Sir John Buck, parson of Stratford, fished my *stanks* at Dedham and helped to break my dam.—*Sir J. Fastolf, in Paston Letters, A. D., 1450.*

Thei lighted and abiden beside a water *stank*.—*Robert de Brunne*.

STAN-STICKLE. The stickle-back; *gasterosteus aculeatus*, of Lin., from its sharp spiny belly, the Jack Sharp of Cheshire A. S., *steel* a prick. Su.-Goth., *stänga*, to prick, sting. '*Stykelynge*, *fysche*,' *Pr. Pv.* Also called *stuttle*, and in Suf. *tantickle*.

Pungilius Marinus, or sea-banstickle, having a prickle on each side. The smallest fish of the sea, about an inch long.—*Sir T. Browne, IV.*, 331.

Forby mentions their occurrence some years ago in the Ouse above Lynn, in such myriads as to almost choke it up, tainting the air ten miles round with their stench as they were carried away by the farmers for manure.

STAPLER. A settler, a stopper, a floorer, a final upsetting of any further hope. L. Ger., *stapelen*; Lat., *stabilire*, to make firm.

STATHE. A term in common use in Norfolk for a wharf or landing place. A. S., *stath*; Isl., *staðr*, a shore, bank; in Kent, *stade*. 'Stathe, waterys syde,' *Pr. Pv.*

For caryng of ye same Lyngs, from ye Balle to ye Common *Stath*, tilld.—*L'Estrange Household Accounts.*

STEAD. to supply a place left vacant; *stedded*, suited. 'I can't git no work—the farmers are all *stedded*'; *Stead*, a place, sits, as fair-*stead*, home-*stead*. A. S., *stede*. 'Stode, place.'—*Pr. Pv.*

'There screeching satyrs fill the people's empty *steedes*.'

—*P. Fletcher's Purple Island.*

STEEN. Spite, envy. A. S., *teon*, slander, malice, reproach.

STIANY. The sty in the eye.—*Pr. Pv.* A. S., *stigend*.

STIFLER. A stickler, busy on occasion, raising the dust. 'She was a high *stifler*.' Also a stunning blow. *Stifle*, to ruin. See *der.*, under *tiffling*. *Stifle*, to suffocate, stifle.

STILTS. Crutches. A lame man is said to walk with *stilts*. A. S., *stalcan*, to go warily, to stalk. Su.-Goth., *stylta*.

STINCH. To stink. A. S., *stinc*; so O. Eng., *slinch*, to slink.

What a great part of the day is taken up by many in *pranking* up the body, lapping up *stinch* in silke, in adorning dung, guilding rottenness, powdering excrements, perfuming putrefaction.—*Rogers' Lost Sheep.*

STINGY. Piercing cold, Norf. In Suffolk, *stringy*.

Su.-Goth. & L. Ger., *streng*, rigorous, severe; *streng köld*, bitter, biting cold.

STINT.—A species of polecat or weasel, Suffolk. *Stint*, L. Ger. for *stink*.—*Kilian*. A. S., *stino*.

STIR-UP-SUNDAY. The last after Trinity. From its collect.

STIVE. To raise dust. 'Go gently, Tom, you *stive* the ladies.'

'*Steyn* up, scando, ascendo, *Pr. Pv.* Isl., *stufa*; Su.-Goth., *stoft*; Dut. *stof*, dust; Dan. and Teut., *støve*, to be dusty; O. Fr., *estouffer*, to stifle; It., *stufa*, a hot-house.

Stive, Somerset, to keep close and warm; Fr., *estuver*, to warm. Also to tremble. Dut., *verstuyven*, to shiver with cold.

Stive, dust, Pembroke, where dust implies only saw-dust.—*Pegge*.

STOCK. The blackened plate or place at the fire back, or sides; hence the common simile 'As black as the *stock*.' See *Crock*. *Stoker*, which may be a cognate, seems *der.* from Ger., *stockern*, to prick, poke; Isl., *stokkr*; Dan., *stok*, stick.

Stoke, to stir the fire. Fries. and Dut., *stookten*, to kindle, stir the fire.

Stoker, one that looks after the fire in a brew-house.—*Phillips' World of Words*, 1658.

STODGY. Thick, clayey, clogsome. Said in Suf. of a heavy road. More frequently applied to porridge and similar mixtures.

Ger., *stocken* to stagnate, stiffen, thicken. Su.-Goth., *stocks*. Also to oppress, stifle, as *stodging* weather; *stodgy*, said of a fat, clumsy girl.—*Lake Dial. Stodged*, crammed full, Craven.

STOLY. Dirty, disorderly. Dan., *söle*, to dirty, befoul.

A. S., *sol*, mire, dirt, a place to roll in. Dut., *stollen*, pieces and fragments; Sw., *ställa*, to disorder.

STRONGEY. Hot blistering weather. Cor. of *stinging*, the Su.-Goth., *stänga*.

Or it may be by one of those curious inversions of meaning common in E. Ang., (vide *sore* and *sweet*;) *stingy*, which see ante.

STOOR. To stir; a commotion. 'A *stoor* of yeast,' the quantity required for a brewing, is a phrase implying that it is to be *stoored*, (stirred) into the wort to excite fermentation. Ger., *stören*, to stir up, Sax., *styrän*.

The whyche preest I wyll shall calle vpon, *meve* and *stoor*, that all thyng in my seyð wyll be pormyd and doon.—*Bury Wills*,—*Marg. Odeham*, 1492.

STOUR. Stiff, stout, sturdy. Applied in Suf. to stiff land; in Norf. to strong vegetable growth. Pl. Dut. *stuur*; Su.-Goth., Fris. and A. S. *ster*, strong, great. 'Stoor, or hard or boystows,'

Pr. Pv. Su.-Goth., *stort*, haughty, proud.

Tille Uttred his kosyn, a stiffe knyght in *stoure*.

He gaf his kyngdom and died in langoure.—*Robert de Brunne*.

For body being a *stour*, unwieldsome thing, or at least, a boaky, unthrougfaresome thing, it cannot stir without asking another bodles leave to crowd by.—*Fairfax*.

STOVER, STUVA. Winter food for cattle, fodder from thrashed corn, whether straw, chaff, or colder. Clover made into hay, straw, fodder, &c. 'Spend *stover*,' to consume provisions.—*Bp. Hall*

'Thresh barley as yet but as need shall require,

Fresh threshed for *stover* thy cattle desire.'—*Tusser*.

The lean and feeble cattle, that would but spend *stover*, and die alone, shall perish by the sword of Israel.—*Bishop Hall's Contemplations*.

Old Fr. *estouvier*, convenance, nécessité, provision de tout ce qui est nécessaire.

STOW. To cut the boughs of a pollard close to the head. Dut., *stæve*, to prune, poll; Gael., *stoth*. The cuttings are called *stowins*, and if stolen are termed *brumps*, which see.

STOW. To drive cattle into a corner to catch them. See *unstowly*.

STOWTER. To struggle along, to walk with a lumbering, heavy gait.

Dut., *stooten*, to push along, thrust, stamp heavily; Su.-Goth., *stöta*.

Here greet shulderys, square and brood,

Here breestys up bere, hire bely soylarge,

For upon hire is a greet carte lood;

She is no bot, she is a barge,

A *stouhte*, that no man may charge.—*Lydgate*.

STRAFT. A scolding bout, an angry din. Isl., *straffa*, angry, morose; Su.-Goth., *stræff*; Ger., *straffen*, arguere, oburgare.

STRAIK. The iron tire or rim of a cart wheel. *Strings*, the shafts.

Strake, the iron hoop or band which binds together the felines of the wheel.

It. *strica*, a long narrow plate of metal; Sp., *straca*; Ger., *starken*, to strengthen; L. Ger., *stricken*, to bind together. *Strakes*, Suff., boat planks.

Strines, Lanc., are handles of a barrow, sides of a ladder. Wel., *ystram*, frame work; Lat., *stringo*; Fr., *estreindre*, to bind, keep fast in; L. Ger., *stringhe*, a chain strap; It. *strenza*.

STRAM-MALKING. Gadding and loitering; said of a dirty, slovenly female. See *maukin*.

Stram and *stramash*, loud and sudden noise; *stramming*, noisy, banging; *stram-bang*, *stramming*, huge, *strammer*, a big lie, Devon; *strammerly*, ungainly. Kent, *stramash*, to smash, as with a flail amongst china.—*Whitby*. *Stramp*, to trample upon, N. Ang.; *strammullion*, a strong masculine woman, Sc.; *stramash*, a broil, Sc.; Fr., *estramacon*, a blow, cuff, bang; It., *strammazone*, a staggering blow or fall, and *strammazzo*, a wad, a whip, a swab or maulkin; Ger., *strampeln*, to kick, stamp. There are two roots, the Su.-Goth., *ström*, Isl., *straumr*, estuans, and the It., *strame*, straw, conveying the sense of litter, untidiness. From the latter, *strammalking* seems derived.

STRAMMEL, STRUMEL. A head of long, dishevelled hair. L. Ger., *striemelen*, to wave about; Isl. & Dan., *strimmel*, a shred, tatter.

It may derive in a littersy untidy sense, from It., *strame*, straw. *Strammel* and *strommel* are N. Ang. cant words for straw; vide *Jamieson* and *Grose*.

STREEK. To iron out clothes. Dut., *stryken*; Ger., *striecken*.

Streeking-board, used formerly for composing the limbs of a corpse. A. S., *streccan*. Now applied to the ironing board.

STREELY. Long and thin. O. Fr., *estrillé*, thin, slender, lank.

STRINKLE. To sprinkle. Ger., *streken*. Bret., *strinkella*.

STRIPPINGS. The last milk drained from a cow in milking, esteemed richer than the first; Norfolk, *strookings*; Sc., *stribblings*.

STRIVE. To rob a bird's nest. Sw., *ströfva*, to rove about in search of plunder.

STROME. To step out with long strides; Dan., *ström*, to rush forth.

STRONG-DOCKED. Thick-set, strongly made about the loins and rump. 'Betty is a good shearer (reaper, Su-Goth., *skaera*) said an old labourer in commendation of his daughter; she is a fine *strong-docked* wench!'—*Forby*.

STROOP. Gullet or wind-pipe; Dan. *strube*, throat; Isl., *strapa*.

'*Stroupe* of the throat, epiglottis.'—*Pr. Pv.*

STROUT. To strut, also a struggle, bustle, quarrel. Dan., *stryg*; Isl., *strokit*.

Sc., *strouth*; A. S., *struddan*; O. Fr., *estrais*, to protrude, swell, strut out.

Strowtyn, or bocyn owte, *turgeo*.—*Pr. Pv.* Ger., *strotsen*, to be swelled, puffed out; *stroter*, a robber, highwayman.

These upstart changelings went *strouting* like Philopolimarchides, 'the Bragart, in Plautus.—*Greene's Quip for an Upstart Courtier*.

There is a beast in the north part of Suetia which they call a *Jerffe*, whose property they say is this—having killed his prey and pufft up his belly with feeding, (so that it *strowteth* out like a bag-pipe) he getteth presently betwixt two narrow trees and streineth out backward that which it hath eaten, and thus emptying of itself it returns again to the remainder of the carcase and filleteth himself again; and so continueth his former course until it hath devoured all; which being consumed he hunts after more, and after this sort passeth the time.—*Rogers' Rich Fool*.

STRULL. Excellently well. A. S., *til*, *töl*; Fl. *struys*.

STRY. To destroy, waste; *stry-good*, a spendthrift; *stryance*, wastefulness; *stry-goodly*, extravagant; *stryful*, wasteful, cor. of destroy. '*Stroy* or *dystroyare*.—*Pr. Pv.* *Strushons*, wastefulness, Lanc.

Lincolne and Lyndesele thei *stroied* and wasted.—*Robert de Brunne*.

STUBBY. Blunt-pointed, short, thick, stunted. *Stubs*, decayed stumps, broken stakes, props, short nails for heavy shoes.

'And like a *studded* thorne.'—*Gascoigne*.

'An ynche above her kne. Her legges that ye myght see,
But they were sturdy and stubbed.'—*Skelton*.

Su.-Goth., *stubble*; A. S., *stybbe*; Isl., *stubble*; Sw., *stubig*. A good *stub*, a round sum, Devon.

STUGGISH. stout, strong, sturdy. Dan., *stug*. '*Stugge*, a hog's trough.' *Stug*, short.—*Pr. Pv*.

Strugg'd, *stuggy*, applied to a broad shouldered, chubby-cheek'd boy, Devon.

STULK-HOLE. A puddle. Su.-Goth., *sylta*, a bog, swamp.

Stolky, wet and miry. Glouc. A. S., *sol*, mire, dirt, a place to wallow in; Wel., *twl*, a hole, pit; Gael., *tuile*, an over-flow, flooding with water.

STULL. A luncheon, a lump of bread or other eatable. Gael., *stiall*, a slice or piece.

STULP. A boundary post, or a support. Su. G., *stolpe*, a tree trunk. '*Stulpe* or stake.'—*Pr. Pv*. Dan., *stolpe*, a post.

STUNTY. Short, stunted. A. S., *stintan*, to stop in growth; Dut., *kluntet*. Also crusty, snaggy, runty. In Linc., stubborn, angry; A. S., *stunt*, foolish, mad.

N. Ang., *scruntly*; *struntly*, dwarfish, Cumb.; Fr., *estreint*, shrunk up. Took *stunt*, became stupid; *stuntish*, obstinate.—Whitby. *Stunla*, a fool, *stunship*, folly, *Verstegan*.

STYE. To soar, ascend. A. S., *stygan* and *stylan*, to mount up.

SUDDER. Soiled, dirtied, defiled. N. Ang., *suddled*; Ger., *sudeln*, to daub, defile; Su.-Goth., *sudda*; *sulsh*, Wessex.

Meadows are said to be *sudded* when covered with drift sand left by the floods, Devon.

Repent, repent, you ruins of intemperance, recover your souls though you have *sudded* your bodies,—*Nashe's Christ's Tears*.

'And useth in his sermons to raile upon his parishioners, calling them *sowed* piggs, bursten rammes, and speckled frogs.—(Vicar of Beddingfield, Suffolk.) *White's Century of Scandalous Priests*, 1642.

SUFFOLK CHEESE. See *Trip*.

'Having quoted so many hard sayings on Suffolk cheese under *Ba* g, it is but fair to give *Fuller's* commendation of it. "Most excellent cheese are made here (in Suffolk), whereof the finest are very thin, as intended not for food but digestion. I remember when living in Cambridge, the cheese of this county was preferred as the best. * * * *Pantaleon*, the learned Dutch physician, counted them equal at least with them of Parma in Italy. *Butter*, for quantity and quality this county doth excel, and venteth it at London and elsewhere. The child not yet come to, and the old man who is past the use of teeth, eateth no softer, the poor man no cheaper, the rich no wholesomer food. I mean in the morning."

Fuller's Eulogium stands almost alone. Early in the century following, *Ned Ward*, in his *Infallible Predictor*, foretells that 'Many London prentices will be forced to eat *Suffolk cheese*, that their master's daughters may be kept at a boarding school.'

SUFFOLK FAIR MAIDS.

'It seems the God of nature hath been bountiful in giving them beautiful complexions, which I am willing to believe, so far forth as it fixeth not a comparative disparagement of the same sex in other counties. I hope they will labour to joyn gracious hearts to fair faces, otherwise, I am sure there is a Divine proverb of infallible truth—"As a jewel of gold in a swine's snout so is a fair woman which is without discretion."—*Fuller's Worthies*.

SUFFOLK MILK.

'This was one of the staple commodities of the Land of Canaan, and certainly most wholesome for man's body, because of God's own choosing for his own people. No county in England affords better and sweeter of this kind.—*Fuller's Worthies*.

SUFFOLK STILES.

'It is a measuring cast whether this proverb pertaineth to Essex or this county, and I believe it belongeth to both, which, being enclosed countries into petty quillies, abound with high stiles, troublesome to be clambred over, but the owners grudge not the pains in climbing them, sensible that such severals redound much to their own advantage.—*Fuller's Worthies*.

SUKEY. A breeding sow.

SUMP. A dead weight; a blockhead; fossil wood. *Sumpy*, lumpish.

Su.-Goth., *sump* a shapeless lump; Ger., *sumpfen*, to stagnate, stand still. Dut., *sompig*, boggy. One of the East Anglian words carried into Gower. See p. 502.

SUNKET. To pamper, cocker. Hence a silly fellow; a sickly child is 'a poor *sunketing* thing.' Var. of *junket*, which see.

Sunkets, Sc, provision of any kind. Also a small quantity of food or drink, specially if given grudgingly. *Sunkets*, suppers, Cumb.

SUSAN, OLD, or SUKEY. A hare.

Gypsy dial., *shushy*, a rabbit; Gitano, *joy*; Hindostanee, *susa*.

SUSS. A call to swine; to swill like a hog; an unclean mess. See *ross*.

SWACK, SUSSACK. A violent fall; also a blow. 'A gon em a right good *sussack* i' the guts.' 'The baw Sparrak shuvv'd the mawther Sal *swack* down off 'a the stule, an crackt ar sconce.'

Moor. Ger. *swacken*; Isl., *svacka* *Swak*, to throw or cast with force, N. Ang. Isl., *svakk*, violence, racketing horse play.

Swacker, something huge; 'a *swacking* lie.'

SWACKER. A handsome, sprightly, bouncing girl.

Sw., *vacker*, handsome, beautiful, charming, pretty.

SWAD. A sword. A silly clown or bumpkin.

Swad is a common term of reproach in the Eliz. Drama, see *Nares*, der. uncertain, but supposed to be the N. Ang. *swad*, a peascod. The Dan., *has svades*, to babble, jabber, gabble. Applied in Prov. Dan. to a giddy coquette, or to an impudent forward fellow.

For so he was a Dutche, a deuill, a *swaddle*.—*Gascoigne*.

Let country swains and silly *swads* be still.—*Id.*

SWAILING. Lounging from side to side in walking. *Swallop*, a heavy, lounging gait.

Zwail, to move about with arms extended, and up and down, Somerset.

Su.-Goth., *walla*, used 'de motu inconstante vagantium et erronum.'—*Thre*.

Ger., *schwallen*, to waver, undulate, sway to and fro.

SWAKE, SWIKE. The handle of a pump.

In other dial. *swape* is a long pole for raising a bucket from a well. Isl., *svipa*, to swing up and down, oscillate. Grose has *swape* the handle of a pump, Norfolk. It is rather N. Ang. Sc., *swap*, to draw. *Swipe*, a crane or engine to draw up water out of a well.—*Nomenclator*, 1585.

SWALE. I.—A low place, a hollow. Dan., *svælg*, an abyss. II.—

Shade, in opposition to sunshine: 'Swale or shadowe.—*Pv. Pv.*

Isl., *svala*, cool; Su.-Goth., *swal*. In Suf. a gentle rise of ground.

A. S., *swellan*, to rise.

SWALLOCKY. Applied to the appearance of clouds in hot weather, before a thunderstorm.

Su.-Goth., *swalla*, æstuate, ferverescere, with the intensive *oka*; A.S., *swaloth*, heat.

SWAMMOCKS. A slatternly girl. 'As dirty as a *Moll-swammocks*,

Ger., *schwamm*, toadstool, excrescence, proud flesh; *schwammig*, proud, flaunting. With the Su.-Goth. intensive, *oka*.

SWANK. To sink in the middle. Dan., *svang*, hollow of the sole.

Ger., *schwanken*, to waver, fluctuate; *Swinky*, pliant, Devon.

SWAP. Smart and sudden, clean and quickly done. Isl., *svipa*;

A. S., *swipan*. 'Swap or stroke,' Pr. Pv. Dan., *et svip*, in a trice.

SWAPER, SWAY. A switch. '*Sweype*, for a top or scorge.—Pr. Pv.

A. S., *swapan*, to sweep; Dut., *zweep* a whip. Su.-Goth., *swepa*,

Swap of his hed, this is my sentence here.—Chaucer's *II Nunne's Tale*.

Dastards, why stand you still? he sayth, and straight

Swaps of the head with his presumptuous yron.

—Grimoald's *Death of Cicero*, 1553.

SWARD-PORK. Bacon cured in large fitches. Su.-Goth., *sward*.

SWATTOCK. A severe fall. Intensive of *swack*.

SWEETLY. Excessively. 'How sweetly cold it is!' 'Yes, 'tis bitter cold!'

SWELKING. Sultry. 'A *swelking* hot day; *Sweldersome*, *swelter-*

some, *swullocking*, overpoweringly hot. A. S., *sweltan*, to perish

by heat; *sweltendlic*, ready to die; Isl., *swaela*; Su.-Goth.,

waella; L. Ger., *swelten*, to languish.

Grass cut in wet weather is said to *swelt*. In a hot, dry season every green thing *swelts* for want of rain, Cumb. *Swelt*, dead, says *Verstegan*.

In such a cause in weary woes to *swelt*.—*Gascoigne*.

For veray sweme of this swemeful tale;

About his hert he thoughte he gan to *swelt*.—*Lydgate*.

And as little able are we (though we should sweat and *swelt* our hearts out).—*Rogers' Rich Fool*.

SWERTLE, SEBTLE. To startle, surprise.

Swirtle, to move uneasily or in a fidgetty manner, Cumb. dial.

SWIG, SWIDGE. To drain off, swill, guzzle, suck in. A roof leak-

ing is said to be 'all of a *swidge*.' A puddle or plash of water is

called a *swidge*. *Swiggle*, a dimin. of *swig*, means also to shake

liquor in an enclosed vessel, to drink greedily. *Swuggle* and

swulk are variations.

A. S., *swilgan*, to swallow; Norse, *swiga*, to drink in; Gael., *suigh*, to drain,

suck in; Dut. *zuigen*, to suck. Richardson is curiously astray here, 'to *swag*

or weigh down,' his illustration ought to have set him right—

The flock is drain'd, the lambkins *swig* the teat,

But find no moisture and then idly bleat.—*Crech's Virgil*.

SWILL. A basket containing about 500 herrings, made of unpeeled

willows. Used for transferring the fish from the boat to the

shore. Probably from the Gael., *suil*, a willow; Fr., *saule*;

Su.-Goth., *salg*; A. S., *seal*. See p. 300.

SWINFUL. Sorrowful, wistful, longing. 'Poor thing, ta looked so

swinful aata me,' said by a nurse of a weaned child. A. S.,

swincful, wretched; *swincan*, to toil; '*swinkt*, wearied.'—*Milton*.

Swync, labour. We say yet, '*swinc* and sweate.'—*Verstegan*.

For he had *swonken* all the longe night.—Chaucer's *Norfolk Reve's Tale*.

Mary that I wyll and the one half with hym *swynke*,

To encourage hym to drynke the botome off.—*Bale*.

SWINGE. To cut brambles, &c., from hedges. A leash for hounds.

SWINGEL. That part of a flail which swings. A. S., *swingl*;

Dut., *swinghelen*, to cut weeds down. In Chesh., *swippo*.

She *swynged* up a quarte At ones for her parte.—*Skelton*.

In the *swynde* of his Trident he constituted two Lord Admirals over the whole navy of England.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

Hwæt tha, tha arleasan Eadmundum bundan, and bysmoreden hyxllice, and beoten mid sahlum, and swa sythian læddon thonne ileaffulne kyng to ane eorðfestum treowe, and tegdon hine thærto, mid hearde bendum, and hlue eft *swuncgon* longlice mid swipum, and he symle clypode, betweox tham *swincglum*, mid sothan ileafan to Hælende Criste.—*Homily on Martyrdom of St. Edmund, written in the Ang.-Sax. dialect of East Anglia*.

SWOB. A very awkward fellow, fit only for coarse drudgery. It is our form of the sea term *swabber*, one who sweeps and cleans the decks with a *swab* or mop.—*Forby*.

A. S., *swapan*, to sweep, brush; Dan., *svaber*, to mop; Swed., *svabb*; Dut., *zwabber*, the drudge of a ship; Fr., *fauberter*.

SWOBBLE. To talk in a noisy, bullying, blackguard manner. Ger., *schwabbeln*, to roll, shake to and fro; *schwaddern*, to rattle, boast.

SWOBBFULL. Brimful. Prov. Ger., *schwabbeln*, to drink hard.

SWOTTLING. Corpulent, greasy and sweaty. A. S., *swat*. Also noisy, chattering; Ger., *schwatteln*, to prate, babble.

SYBBRIT. The banns of marriage. One of Sir T. Browne's words, and in full use at this day on the East coast.

Cybrede, banna; *sybrede* or bane; *cybbe* or kyn, akyn, *affinis*. *Sybbe* or of kynne, *consanguineus*, *contribulis*.—*Pr. Pv. Sibberidge* or *sibbered*, the Banes of matrimony, Suf.—*Ray's East Country Words*. Way in his note on the word has, 'consanguinitas, affinitas, *Cybrade*.—*Wilbr. Dict.* *Affinis viri et uxoris cognati*,—*alyaunce* or *sybbered*.—*Whitint Gramm.*, 1520. *A sybredyne*, *consanguinitas*.—*Cath Ang.*, 1483.

Der. by Hickee and Spelman, from A. S., *syb*, akin, (still in common use in the North) and *byrht*, to bruit, divulge. This der. after much disputation and conjecture has been accepted by the compilers of our dictionaries and glossaries for the last two centuries.

The term occurs in a curious entry in the old assembly books of the Yarmouth Corporation, Dec. 25th, 1625, Charles I.—WHEREAS by the marriage of many poor folkes in this town, the increase of poverty and poor people is much augmented, and the great charge of the town being already too much overcharged, it is thought fitting and very requisite to intreat Mr. Brinsley, our minister, to forbear to take any banns, ask any **CYBREDDS**, or marry any poor persons in this town with license or without, except such couples shall first obtain the handwriting of the aldermen or chief constable of the ward where they inhabit, to signify they be allowed inhabitants of this town, and may fittingly and without exception marry.

From the Wel. root, *cyd*, (corresponding with the Lat. *con*, *cum*: Gr., *sun*; Sansk., *sam*.) denoting union, joining together, a mutual act, derive hundreds of words with that prefix and added significance in the Kymric language. *Cydbriodas* and *cydbriawd*, intermarriage, from *cyd* and *priodas*, espousals, wedlock; *cydbriodi*, to inter-marry; *cydwaed*, consanguinity. *Sibbrit* appears to be a corruption of the foregoing.

Moore in his Suffolk words has two long articles upon it. He appears to have been put on a red herring trail by 'a learned and reverend' correspondent, on whose authority he sums up,—'After all the word is deduced from the beginning of the banns, as they used to be published in Latin, *si quis sciverit*, &c.' Later on, in his appendix, he admits with compunctious visitings, the sad downfall of his exultation over this happy etymology. On consulting the Latin liturgies, no such passage could be found.

SYNNETS. Cygnets, young swans.

Item in reward to Arnold's sarvant for bryngyn of ij synetts; xvd.—*L'Estrange Household Accounts*.

TA, TE, TO, *art.* or *pron.* The, this, that, it. 'Te appears to be the A. S. article *the*; *ta*, the Isl. *thad*, without its final letter; *to*, the Mæso-Goth. *tho*; all deprived of their aspirates in accordance with a strongly marked East Anglian propensity.'—*Forby*. 'Dew it rain?' 'Is ta dew.' 'Ta crumble all ta pieces.' 'Te frize, te hail?' It freezes, it hails. Isl., *thad frestur*, *thad heilar*. 'Ta frize?' 'Yes, and that hail too.' 'Do it frize?' 'No that don't frize now, but ta wull at night. To-day, to-night, are used for *this* day, *this* night. *Tan*, then, 'now and *tan*.'—*Forby* and *Moor*.

Our *the* is the old Frisic *thi*; fem. *thin*; neut. *thet*; answering to the Teutonic *der, die, das*. In E. Anglia, Scandinavian influences have rejected the aspirate, as in N. Anglian dialectic speech, in which the Norse pronoun *et* to this day holds its ground against the Sax. article *the*, but shortened by elision to *t*, as *t* house, *t* wood.

T and *th* are curiously interchanged in the E. Ang., dialectic speech. 'There are tree apples on that three.' 'I went to the shop for tree ha'aporth o' tread, and tumbled over the trossold.' *Th* also becomes *f*; e.g., fumble for thimble 'Just yar look here, Mum, I tuk up Miss Fahny's dress, and there fares sumthin like a fumble in it.' These peculiarities are noticeable in the Yarmouth dialect, which is said to come all out of the throat.

TAB. A shoe-latchet fastened with a thong. A lace tag.

L. Ger., *tap*; Ger., *zapfen*, to cover, pin, peg, fasten. The Gael. has *taodh*, a chain, binding, fastening.

TACK. A trick or take-up at cards; the handle of a scythe. Dut., *tacke*. Fr., *attacher*; Isl., *taka* and *tekia*. Also said of food of cattle and other stock. 'Tough meat has plenty of *tack* in it.'

Tak, a trick or lift in card playing, Cumb.

Gael., *tacar*, provision, plenty; A. S., *tacan*, to lay hold of; Isl., *tak*, possessions, means.

TAG, to follow closely, 'He's allways *taggin* aater her.' Dan., *tag*, a grip, grasp. A. S., *tigan*, to fasten to.

TAHNATION. A modified oath. Also used in the sense of magnitude. 'A *tahnashun* sight of folks.' An Essex phrase, transplanted to and widely prevalent in America.

'Poor honest John! It is plain he know'd

But liddle of live's range,

Or he'd a know'd gals oft, at fust,

Have ways *tarnation* strange.'—*John Nokes and Mary Stiles*.

TAINT. I.—A very dirty slut; Fr., *teindre*. A protuberance at the top of a pollard, A. S., *tanedæ*, one diseased with a tetter.

TALLET. Any upper room, with an unglazed lath window.

Tallet, a hay loft, West. Wel., *tal*, a space overhead; *taflod*, a loft.

TANGLE. Dark, thick-stalked sea weed, beset with little bladders. *Sea-tang*, *laminaria digitata*. Isl., *thöngull*. Su.-Goth., *täng*.

TANGS. Dirt, disorder. 'Yar in pretty tangs,'—very dirty, Norf. O. Fr., *tan*, frenzy, riot; O. It., *tangari*, a slovenly, filthy, greasy fellow.

TANTABLET, a fruit tart with its surface tricked out with shreds of pastry. O. Fr., *tabletté*, cut in angles, facets, lozenges.

Tantadlins, apple dumplings, Gloucester; *tantarrin*, a squab pie, Northants. Dan., *tant*, a toy, trifle; Wel., *tant*, a whim; Ger. *tandelig*.

TAPPISS. To lie close to the ground. A sportsman's phrase. Ex., 'It is so wet the birds cannot *tappis*.' Fr., *se tapir*, to crouch.

Tapished, hidden. To *tappy* as a deer, *delitescere*.—*Coles' Dict.*, 1677. *Ta-passant*, lurking or squatting.—*Kersey's Dict.*, 1708. (a Sutf. writer.)

With joy alle at ons thei went tillle Snawdone,
On Inor and Ini that *tapised* by that side,
To purvele tham a skulkyng, on the Englis eft to ride.

—Robert de Brunne.

TARDRY. Immodest, loose, tawdry.

A vulg. cor. of St. Audrey, or Auldrey, meaning St. Ethelreda; it implied originally that the things so called had been bought at the fair of St. Audrey, once as famous as St. Bartlemy, where gay toys of all sorts were sold. This was held in the Isle of Ely and elsewhere on her name day, Oct. 17. An old chronicler, *Harpfield, Hist. Eccl. Angl.*, makes St. Audrey die of a swelling in her throat, which she considered as a particular judgment for having been in her youth much addicted to wearing fine necklaces.

'But with white pebbles makes her *taudries* for her neck.'—Drayton.

The O. Fr. has *taudis*, a fowle, sluttish, unhandsome, undressed room.—*Cotgr.*

TASK. A tax. '*Taske* or talyage; *tazyd*, taskyd.—Pr. Pv. Wel., *tasg*.

Tax is used in U. S. in the sense of charging a price for aught.

She says, Peacock hath paid for him two *tasks* at that time.—*Paston Letters, A.D.*, 1475.

The Kyng's Money.—Item pd. to the constables, Batyley and Thaccar of Ryngsted, for the *taske* of Barnard's londs, xxijs.—*L'Estrange Household Accounts*, 1530.

As we all deem low, but we all speak of *tax* which is originally *task*,—the reason probably is task-masters and tax-gatherers closely resemble each other.—*R. Winter Hamilton's Yorkshire Dialect*.

TATTER. To stir actively and laboriously. 'He is is a very pains-taking man, always *towing* (tewing) and *tattering* after his business. Whitby, *tetter*. Fr., *tâter*. *Tatterer*, a female scold.

Taterynge, jaberinge, or speke wythe owte resone.—Pr. Pv. Fr., *tatillon*, a meddling busybody; Fl., *taleren*, to fumble, fumble, maffle in the mouth, *tattle*.

TAWNY. Very small, tiny; *teyny*, Cumb.

TEATHE, TAD. Manure dropped on the land by the cattle depastured.

Isl., *tad*, excrement; Gael., *todhar*, land manured by cattle.

Tathy-grass, soft grass grown under trees, Cumb. Grass luxuriant from the use of manure.—*Essays Highl. Soc.*

Tayin londe with schepys donge, *tathyn*, stercoro.—Pr. Pv.

TEEN. To trouble, vex; *teenful*, vexatious. A. S., *tynan*, to vex. With preyerys, *fastynge*, coold and mekel *teen*.—*Capgrave*.

TEES. Chains fixed to the *sales* of the thill horse. A. S., *teo*, to pull.

TEEVA, TIVER. Suf., red ochre. A. S., *teafor*, ruddle.

TENDER. A waiter at a public table or place of entertainment.

This is we believe, strange to say, almost the only E. Anglicism to be found in the whole range of Crabbe's poetry.

As a naval term it is of old standing. It occurs in *Dampier's Voyages*, 1685.

Forby writes, 'waiters were called *tenders* in East Anglia, till recently'. The word is now used to designate the truck that waits on the railway engine with coals.

TERRIFY. To tease, irritate. A blister is said to terrify a patient.

Flies tormenting horses and kine, '*terrify* 'em sadly.' A flea *terrifies* a child, and an adult is *terrified* with the tooth ache.

Flies *terrify* a horse's sore back; stones in the ground *terrify* a man digging it, in Heref. and Glouc.—*Sir G. C. Lewis*. 'I can't *terrify* myself with no books; I can't be troubled with any reading.—*Miss Baker*, Northants. Used also in a similar sense in Sussex.

'*Teryare* or *ertare*, irritator.'—Pr. Pv. O. Fr., *tarier*, to vex, plague.

TETCHY. *Touchy*, peevish, snappish, irritable. Applied also to land difficult to work. It., *ticcio*, capricious, skittish.

Fr., *tache*, a reproach, disgrace, disreputation, blot to one's good name.

The soule is full of *teches* and pritches against reproofe; or it hatcheth some false conceit, that it hath obeyed when it hath not, or puffed and snuffed against some other thing.—*D. Roger's Naaman*.

TETTER. A pimple. A. S., *teter*. Also called a twiddle.

In faythe, Mesure is lyke a *tetter*

That ouergroweth a manne's face.—*Skelton*.

Tew, Tow. To pull, tear, *tousle*, as hay with a fork, weedy soil. with harrows; to tease flax and wool. A. S., *teon*, to tug, pull at, or *tawian* to dress, pull, prepare. Dut. *touwen*.

Tue, to labour hard, to fatigue by incessant toil, N. Ang.; to ruffle, disturb, 'My gown's sadly *tewed*.'—*Teesdale*; to *tew* (tumble) and toss about in bed; 'a *tewing* haytime,' wet and therefore laborious. 'A *tewing* bairn,' a restless child.—*Whitby*. *Tew*, a rope or chain for dragging vessels along. 'sare *tues*,' great difficulties, N. Ang.; *teaw*, a pulley for raising weights, E. Ang.

Tewynge of lethyr, frunicio. *tew* of fyschyng, reciaris.—*Pr. Pv*.

'The toiling fisher here is *tewing* of his net.'—*Drayton*.

Hire skyn is tendyr for to towche,

As of a hound-fysh or of an hake,

Whoos *tewhyng* hath coost many a crowche,

Hire pylche simple for to make.—*Lydgate*.

And lest you that blte and snarle be devoured by others! I have noted it that nothing will coole some men's spirits till they meet with such as tame and *taw* them.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*

Mines of metal, or layers and veins of barren earths and sapless meddles, we can't tell how far they may be *tiew'd*, and drest, and mingled, so as at length to be made fit for the good of body.—*Fairfax*.

TWELL. A tail, a pipe or funnel. The straight gut, *intestinum rectum*. In Norfolk applied to the fundament of a horse.

O. Fr., *tuiau*, a pipe, quill; Lat., *tubellus*; Old Fris., *tülle*, a pipe, channel, It occurs in *Nibelungen Lied*, v. 3839. Wel., *thwl*; Bret., *tuellen*, or *duellen*.

For thei put a horne in his *tewhel*, and the spete thorw the horne.—*Capgrave*.—*Murder of Ed. II*.

THACK. To thatch, thatching materials, reeds, &c. A. S., *theccan*.

'For strawe, for *thakke*, for ye same berne'—xx. s., *L'Estrange Household Accounts*, 1525. *Theak*, *Whitby*. Isl., *thekia*. *Thak* for howsys, *Pr. Pv*.

Item pd. to Dingle for liij dayes *thackinge*, at liij d, the daye.—*L'Estrange Household Accounts*, 1547.

Plucke downe lede and *theke* with tyle.—*Skelton*.

THAPES. See *Fapes*.

THARRAGO-NIMBLE. *Diarrhœa*. In Scot., *woolly-wombles*.

THEAD. The tall wicker strainer placed in the mash tub to run off the wort clear; more commonly called a *fead*. A. S., *thydan*, to strain. *Thede*, bruarys instrument.—*Pr. Pv*.

THE. It. 'The child will cut thesself,' *them*, those; *then*, that time; *there* and *there-away*, thereabouts; *the tone*, the *t'other*, the one and the other; *thinder*, yonder; *thisn's*, *thusun's*, *thatn's*, in this or that manner; *thennum*, at that time; *thoffer*, because.

THICK-END. The greater part. The *thick end* of a mile.

THIGHT. Applied to turnips or other crops, close, *thick-set*; applied to roofs or vessels, impervious, as opposed to leaky. I.—A. S., *theon*, to flourish, grow thick. II.—Dan., *toette*, to tighten.

Theat, firm, close, staunch, said of barrels that do not run.—N. Ang.

Thyht, hool fro brekyng, not brokyn, solidus.—Pr. Pv. Isl., *tholt*.

THILLER. See *filla*, A. S., *thil*, a pole or shaft. *Thylle* of a cart, temo; *thylle* horse, veredus.—Pr. Pv.

In a coal mine the surface on which the tram runs, N. Ang.

THOKISH. Sluggish, slothful. One of Sir T. Browne's words. A. S., *thac*, slow. *Thokish*, applied to wet boggy land.

Thoke, or onsadde, fysche, humorosus, insolidus.—Pr. Pv. Isl., *thoka*, musty, foggy. *Thokes*, fish with broken bellies; cowerde, herteles, long-*thoke*, vecors, i.e., Silly, footfish. Winchester MS. of Pr. Pv.—Way. Sw., *tok*, a fool; Dan., *tokke*, to behave like a fool.

Thokes, an old Eng. term for broken-bellied fish, may perhaps derive from the Prov. Dan. *tokke* (*Molbeck's Danske Dial. Lex.*), which has the sense of the Dan., *sönderg*, asunder, e. g., broken, squeezed, crushed, smashed in pieces. *Tocke*, Fris., to draw, tug, lug, &c.; 'Su.-Goth., *tokka*; Isl., *thoka*.'—*Thre's Su.-Goth. Lex.* The *tokke-net*, a trawl or drag net, would bring up many fish in this damaged condition. The statute, 22 Ed. IV., c. 2, regulating the packing of fish, prohibits the mixing of *thokes*, broke-bellied fish, with tale fish. *Thoke* occurs as a local name in old E. Ang. documents, and is sometimes written *Toke*.

THONY. Said of damp timber or underdried hay. See *dank*.

Thampy and *thany*, Craven; *thony*, *thoan*, Lanc.; A. S., *than*, moist, wet; Su.-Goth., *dunken*; Teut., *tuncken*.

THOWLS. Either the elevations or *thole* pegs, or the hollows in a boat's gunwale, to receive the oars. A. S., *thol*. Dan., *tol*.

THOWTS. The *thwarts*, the across seats of the rowers.

THREAP. To dogmatise, beat down in argument; A. S., *threapian*; O. N., *threfa*; *Thrip*, Suf., a clipping stroke. Su.-Goth., *drapa*.

Threap is a very expressive N. Anglicism. '*Threaping* agean! when wi' tuh ha' done? ther's nivver noa peace whear he is.'—*Leeds Dial.* Chesh. *thrippa*, to beat; *threphel* a flail, Lanc.

A place is said to be *thrap* full when excessively crowded, Essex.

'My foomes they bray so lowde, and eke *threpe* on so fast.' *Ps.* 55, *Surrey*.

With eagle-soaring Bullingbrook, that at his removing of household into banishment as Father Froyssard *threaps* us down, was accompanied with forty thousand men, women, and children weeping, from London to the Land's End, at Dover.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

A ghost being in itself not roomthy it cannot bear any roomthy behaviour towards bodies that are so, any more than bodies that are bulky can bear immaterial respects or thoughtsom behaviours towards ghosts that are so; roomthiness being as much nothing to a ghost as thinking is to a body, so that you may as well *threap* one down that a ghost is heavier or lighter, colder or hotter, wetter or dryer, harder or softer, whiter or blacker than a body.—*Fairfax*.

Threap, to dogmatise. A man will say of a clamorous talker, he did not convince me, he *threaped* me down. *Threopian*, or dre pian, and thre gan are the same in meaning, and both in A. S. mean to inveigh rather than reason.—*B. Winter Hamilton's Yorksh. Dial.*

THRUM. To purr as a cat; also Whitby Dial. Sw., *drum*.

THUMP. Hard Suffolk cheese. See *bang*.

THURCKY. One of the now obsolete words gathered by Sir T. Browne, meaning (say Hickes and Ray), dark.—*Forby*. *Therke*, or dyrk, or myrk.—Pr. Pv. A. S., *theorcung*, twilight.

Tharky, very dark, South.—*Grose*. *Tarky*, dark.—*Halliwel*.

THURBUCK. The lower flooring of a boat's stern.

Thurrok of a schyppe, *sentina*, Pr. Pv. L. Ger., *dorek*, *durck*, *sentina-Kilian*. *Sentina*, Lat., is the bilge water at a ship's bottom, hence by metaphor the lower part of a ship's hold. Gr., *thura*, door; A. S., *thuruk*, through, also a gutter.

And the same harme do somtime the smal dropes of water that enteren thurgh a litel crevis in the *thurrok* and in the botom of the ship.—*Chaucer's Persones Tale*.

The men that were withen schip thel killed, save a boy that fled to on of the Flemysch schippes and hid him in the *hurrok*.—*Capgrave*.

THWACK. To thump, lump, whack, or bang together. A *thwacker*, a big piece. Isl., *vakr*, full of fire, force, and movement; Prov. Dan., *vakker*. Hence perhaps also the E. Ang., *twack*, to change frequently

'When he comes to describe the office of his imaginary doctor, *thwacks* fourteen scriptures into the margent, whereof not any one hath any just claim of inference to his purpose.'—*Bp. Hall. An Apologie against Brownists*.

'If Jove speak English, in a thund'ring cloud,

'Thwick-thwack,' and 'riff-raff,' roars he out aloud.'—*Bp. Hall's Satires*.

Which would be a *thwacker* as unspeakably big as that is little.—*Fairfax*.

And now, though the coethy bird should be as much bent upon setting and starving, as it was before upon rising and eating; yet, as then the strength of the law overbound it to set still and hatch, so now the force of the same overways it to flee away and eat; all this while she plotting no more (without wiser than we) than the shruff, moss, and hair, that the nest was *thwackt* together of.—*Fairfax*.

TICK. A gentle touch; to toy. 'Lovers like *ticking* and *toying*.'

Ger., *tick*. Mæs.-Goth., *tekan*. N. Ang., *tig*. U. S., *tag*.

Tek or lytyle towche, Pr. Pv.

By slaundrous steppes and stayres of tickle talke.—*Gascoigne's Steele Glas*.

'Such *ticking*, such *toying*, such smiling, such winking, and such manning them home when the sports are ended.'—*Gosson's School of Abuse*, 1579.

TIDDIDOLL. A flaunting, over-dressed, affected, young girl.

TIDDLE. To cosset daintily, to tickle. A girl says 'I 'ont be *tiddled* by you nor no one.' Ger., *tippeln*, to touch gently.

Tiddle, to pet, nurse by hand, Hereford; A. S., *tidder*, tender; *tyddrian*, to nourish, feed.

TIDDLIN. *Tittlin*, topmost. 'Lawk! Kienda! dew look at that there bahd.' 'Kthere, on the *tiddlin* top, a' that tree.'—*Moor*.

TIFFLE. To be very busy over little or nothing. Isl., *tesfa*, *tifa*. Old Fr., *tiffer*. *Tiffed* out, smartened up; O. Fr., *attiffé*, decked, pranked, tricked out.

Tyfflynge or unprofyttable werkynge, Pr. Pv.

Tyfell, to entangle, mix knots together; standing corn trodden down is *tified*; N. Ang., *taffle*, to perplex, throw in disorder, Cumb. and Devon, *tifed*, sprained in the back, Craven, *tife* to tire.—*Leeds*. *Tiffles*, light downy particles, Devon; *taffling*, idle, trifling, said of servants, Northants. Sc., *taffe*, to tire, wear out; *tuffie*, to ruffle, disorder by frequent handling.

Tiffling, faddling, busy with trifles, Northants.

'I *tyfell* with my fingers, or busy myself longe aboute a thyngne to make it well to the contentynge of my mynde.'—*Palsgrave's Fr. Dict.*, 1530.

TIGHT-LOCK. Any coarse sedge used to bind sheaves.

TILD. To incline, to tilt up. Isl., *tildra*; A. S., *tealtian*.

Tilled, propped, set up, as a pole *tilled up* against a house, a horse *tilled up* too high on his legs, Hereford; *Tile*, to set a trap a-tilt, Dorset; to *teel* it, Devon.

TILL. The diluvial soil of the coast cliffs, the *tilth*. A. S., *tilth*.

That part of the soil loosened by the plough.

Tillin, crops, produce; when the *tillin's* ripe; A. S., *tilda*, *tylung*,—*Hartshorne's Salop.* Dut., *teelt*.

TILLER. I.—The handle of a shovel or spade; Dut., *tillen*, to lift, heave. II.—The handle of a ship's rudder. III.—To throw out many stems from a root. A. S., *tilia*, a begetter; *telg*, a shoot, Fr., *talle*. *Till*, to urge, Bp. Hall. A. S., *tilian*, to toil, endeavour.

TIFE. To tip up, fall headlong as if topheavy. *Tippling*, hay-making, from the act of turning it over.

Isl., *typpi*, summit; Su.-Goth., *tipp*; L. Ger., *tip*.

Tip-trap, for rabbits, mice, &c., on the balance or tilt-up principle. *Whitby*.

TIP. to turn or raise on one side; hence *tip* (and *tipple*) a draught of liquor, Somerset; to *tip*, to capsize. Devon.

TIPS. Small faggots.

TITTER-CUM-TOTTER. Children see-saw on a plank, singing

'*Titty-kum-tawtah*, the ducks in the water,

Titty-kum-tahlah, the geese follow aater.'—*Suffolk saw.*

Totyr or *myry totyr*, childerys game, Pr. Pv. See *Way's* Notes upon.

TITE, to tumble over. An East Ang. importation into Gower, Pembroke. See p. 502. *Toit*, to tumble over, commonly said of whatever stands on one end; a child falling is said to *toyle* over, Cumb. *Titter-totter*, on the balance, Craven; *tawtah*, to totter, Suff.: *tait*, to play at see-saw, Dorset; to *teeter*, U.S. *Tite*, to weigh, Somerset; *tite*, a fall of water, Glouc. *Baccoler*, to play at titter-totter, Cotgr. *Tytter-totter* a play for childre, balenchoeres, Falsg.

Isl., *titra*, to shake, quiver. Wel., *tityr*, that makes a whirl or spin; Fl., *touter*, to balance. swing, wag, swag, totter up and down.

TITTLE-MY-FANCY. Pansies. *Viola tricolor*, Lin.

TOD. I.—The head of a pollard, chump end of a tree; Wel., *tob*, a summit; Fris., *dodd*, a clump, lump, stock. II.—A bunch or tuft. Hence a bundle of wool. Isl., *todda*.

Hurdle tods, the upright stakes of wattled hurdles.

TOGETHER. In very common use, addressed to a number of persons, e. g., 'Well, how are ye all *together*?'

TOLC. To tempt, coax. 'Good sauce *tolcs* down the meat.' In Suf., to *tole* away. A. S., *tolcetung*, a tickling pleasant moving.

Toll on, to entice, to draw on, Craven; *tole-box*, a cheap decoy article, Dorset; *hill*, to tempt on. Northants; *tole*, to tice, U. S. *Tollynge*, styrynge or mevyng to good or badde, Pr. Pv. Su.-Goth., *taelja*; Isl., *taela*, to coax, decoy.

With empty hand men may na haukes *tull*.—*Chaucer's Norfolk Reve's Tale.*

'Sensualitie *tollyng* and alluring him again.'—*Udall, Marke*, c. 9, 1530.

"Here he was *toll'd* to land at Mona by the treacherous Aga, and then had eight of his men treacherously slain."—*Fuller's Worthies, Chester.*

TOLERATE. Used by a strange perversion, remarks Forby, for to domineer, to tyrannize over.

TOM BLOWEN. A bloated herring, Suf. See *bloat*.

TOMMY. A small spade to excavate narrow drains; *tom-tommy*, a double-breasted plough to clear out furrows.

Su.-Goth., *tōma*, to empty out, to drain; Isl., *tomr*; Gr., *tomé* a cutting off or down.

TOM POKER. The great bug bear of naughty children, supposed to inhabit the dark closets, cocklofts, &c. From the Sui.-Goth., *tomte-poeke*, the house *puck*.—*Forby*.

TONGUES. Small soles, such as though incomparably the best, are like cringled carrots, unfit for the London market.—*Moor*.

In the western parts of India the sole is called the *tongue fish*. *Jib è mutchy*, *jib* being the tongue, and the sail so called by us, is there the *tongue sail*.—*Moor*.

Sw., *lunga*, a sole; Dan., *lung-fisk*; Dut., *tong*.

TOPPINGS. The second skimmings of milk, cream being the first.

TOTE. To spy, pry. *Tbot*, to blow a horn, to whistle; Fl., *toeten*.

Tote hylle, or hey place of lokynge, Pr. Pv.; A. S., *totian*, to lift up, elevate. Su.-Goth., *titta*, to spy. *Teet*, a stolen glance, &c.

A myrrour of glasse, that I may *toote* therein.—*Skellon*.

Nor *toot* in Cheapside baskets earne and late.—*Hall's Satires, Book IV, 2*.

TOTTY-HEADED. Reeling, dizzy from drink, &c.

Fl., *touter*, to shake, shog, totter, reel, stagger, waver.

My hed is *tottie* of my swink to-night.—*Chaucer's Norfolk Reve's Tale*.

TOSHY. Muddy, sticky; *tash*, Craven, to bespatter. Fr., *taché*.

fouled, muddied; Dut., *taai*, sticky, clammy.

Tow. Necessary tools or apparatus for aught. A. S., *tawa*, tools, fishing tackle. Dan., *toi*.

TOWERS, or TAWERS.—The superintendants of the processes of curing herrings. See pages 301-2.

A term derived apparently from the *tanning* processes, *steeping*, hanging, &c., which herrings undergo. A. S., *tawere*. Dut., *touwer*.

TOWT or TOUGHT. To set fast, disorder, as skeins of thread, &c.

'This skein is *toughted*.' A. S., *tawain*, to pull; Dut., *tuyt*, a tress, plaited lock; L. Ger., *tuyte*, a rabblement of threads.

TOZE. To tease, pull or draw out wool. 'To *touze* and *mouze*,' to pull about roughly. In other Eng. dial. to *touze*. See *mossy*

Tosare of woll or other lyke, Pr. Pv.

A. S., *tassan*, *teosu*; Dut., *teezen*; Ger., *zausen*; It., *tozzare*.

Prophets there were before, who did beat upon him, and *tozed* him with rebukes and terrors.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

Grosse sins which are as iron moles, and will hardly be worne out of the flesh, being bred in the bone, save by *tozing* and searching the heart thoroughly.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

'Starts, tosses, tumbles, strikes, turns, *touses*, spurns, and sprawls.'—*Drayton*.

TRADE. Line of conduct, course of action, practice, habit. 'If this is to be your *trade*.' *Trad*, Scot., course of travelling or sailing.

Prov. Ger., *trade*, rut, track; Su.-Goth., *træda*, to proceed, advance; Lat., *tractare*

TRAFFING-DISH. A bowl for straining milk. It., *straforo*, perforated work; *trafila*, a tool full of holes.

TRAMMEL. I.—A fowling net. A fishing net for trawling. II.—A chimney iron to hang pots upon. Prov. Ger., *tramel*, a lever, cross-bar.

'*Tramayle*, grete nette for fyschyng, Pr. Pv. Fr., *trameau*, a kind of drag net or draw net for fish, also a trammel net for fowle.—*Colgrave*. It., *trama*, a weaver's woof. Walloon, *tramaie*, basket work. From *tri* and *macula*, mesh.

Poets talk of enticing Syrens in the sea, that on a sunny day lay forth their golden *trammels*, their ivory necks, and their silver breasts, to entice men; sing sweetly, glance piercingly, play on lutes ravishingly.—*Nash's Christ's Tears*.

'Nay, Cupid, pitch thy *trammel* where thou please,

Thou canst not fail to take such fish as these.'—*Quarles' Emblems*.

TRAP. To trail. A young man courting a young woman is said 'to *trape* his wing at her.' A metaphor borrowed from the habits of the turkey cock. In other Eng. dial. to *trapae*,

Ger., *traben*, to trot; Fl., *trap*, a step, stride; Isl., *trappa*; L. Ger., *trap-wiss*, by degrees, gradually; Sc., to *traik* after; Su.-Goth., *traka*.

TRATTLES. The dung pellets of hares, rabbits, sheep; Craven, *trid-lins*; Sussex, *trestles*. Other dial, *tirdles*. 'Tyrdyl, shepys donge.'—*Pr. Pv.*

TRAUL. To trail along. Hence *trawl*-net. L. Ger., *treysten*, to tow with a rope; *treyl*, a tow line.

He that can winke at any foule abuse,

As longe as gaines come *trauling* in therwith.—*Gascoigne's Steele Glas.*

TRAUNT. To traffic in an itinerant manner like a pedlar.

Men who carry fish from the sea-coast to sell in the inland countries.—*Phillip's World of Words*, 1658.

And had some *traunting* chapman to his sire,

That trafficked both by water and by fire.—*Hall's Satires*, B. IV.

Traunt, the L. Ger., *trouwant*, a camp follower, satellite, pretorian soldier, and by metaphor a vagabond, parasite, buffoon, deceiver, cheat, idler; Ger., *trabant*, halberdier, life-guardsmen, (Ger., *traben*, to trot,) Fr., *truant*.—*Kilian*.

Truand, Fr., a common beggar, vagabond, rogue, a lazie rascall, an upright man; also a knave, scowndrell, varlet, filthie and lewd fellow; *truande*, a filthie beggarlie queane, a doxie or mort; *truander*, to beg or cant, to play the rogue, to carrie himself most basely, scurvily, to oppress, wrong, abuse; *truandise*, beggary, roguery, knavery, cousening, villanie; *truandaille*, a crue of rascallie beggars, a rabble of lewd rogues.—*Cotgrave*.

This very curious word would thus seem to reflect primarily the hatred borne by oppressed and plundered continental nations to the thieving marauding soldiery and camp-followers of the middle ages, specially the *lagers*. Somewhat later in England, happily less familiar with these scourges, the word got transferred and applied with *fogger* (which see), *huckster*, and other opprobrious epithets, to itinerant traders. A collection of the uncomplimentary epithets in various languages, bestowed on this latter class, would open up an hitherto unnoticed chapter in social history, illustrating the rise of prejudices existing in the present day in their almost original intensity.

Ducange's Med.-Lat. Gloss. has several articles under *Trutanus* and its cognates, with quotations from many mediæval writers. Some derive from the Lat., *trado*, some the Keltic *truán*, wretched, pitiful, others from the O. Fr., *treu*, toll, taxes, tribute; tax-gatherers (*treuants*) and sinners, continuing to rank together in public esteem. The sense generally applied to *trutanus* is that of abandoned and profligate vagrancy, mendicancy and buffooning. An ordinance, A. D. 1340, cites among the most indigent objects of alms *Trutani et baraterii*. It is noticeable that this word has no meanings akin to any of the above in the copious ed of *Florio's* old Ital. Dict., by Torriano, 1688. From the O. Fr., *treu* the *Trouveres* of Romance poetry have been traced by some; hence, more probably, may descend the two following:—

'*Qui fit Normand, il fit truand*,' i.e. that a Normand made, a beggar made (for the Normands have been more fleeced and harried than any people subject to the crown of France).—*Cotgr*

Tranterie, an O Eng. term for money arising from alehouse fines.

TRAVVIS. A smith's shoeing shed. Old Fr., *travail*, the frame whereinto farmers put unruly horses to shoe them.—*Cotgr*.

Trave of a smythe, ypodromus, *Pr. Pv.* Portg., *trave*, stocks, fetters.

Horses harnessed ready for work are said to be 'in the *trave*.' *Traves*, shackles for a horse that is taught to amble or pace.—*Phillip's World of Words*.

TRICKLE, TRITTLE. To bowl. 'Trickle me an orange across the table.' Gr., *trokos*.—*Forby*. *Trickle* bed, a truckle bed.

Wel., *treiglau*, to roll, revolve, circulate; Sa.-Goth., *trilla*, to roll, trundle; Isl., *trilla*. To *trinkle round one*, to seek to influence unfairly.

TRICULATE. To adorn, as masons with finishing touches.—*Forby*.

Used also in gardening, says *Miss Gurney*, who thinks it a confusion of *trig up* and *decorate*. To *trick up*.

Trekken, Dut., has the sense of to ornament with flourishes, &c.

TRIG. To trot gently, or trip, as a child after its nurse.

TRIP. New milk cheese, to be eaten fresh, whilst soft and curdy, as it soon becomes dry, tough, and uneatable.—*Suffolk*.

A *Goddess kichel*, or a *trippe* of chese.—*Chaucer's Sempnoure's Tale*.

Several of Chaucer's editors, ignorant of its dialectic significance, render *trip* a small piece.

It differs from cream cheeses, as having no cream in, and being thicker.

Flet is another species of Suffolk cheese, made from *fletted* or skimmed milk.

L. Ger., *vloten* (also *Holl.*, *Fland.*, *Fris.*, and *Zealand*), to skim the cream; *vlote-melch*, skim milk. *Wonmil* is a Suffolk cheese made from *one milking*, and *Trip* may derive from the *strippings*, a *Suff.* term for the last milk drawn from a cow, and esteemed richer than the first.

TRIP-SKIN. I.—Leather worn on the right side of spinners with the rock or distaff, to receive the friction. II.—The skinny part of roast meat, which soon becomes tough and dry.

It, *trippa*; *Wel.*, *tripa*, a cow's stomach; *Ger.*, *strippe*, *Dan.*, *stribe*, a strap;

L. Ger., *stroopen*, to skin, flay.

TROLLY. A market cart. 'Sich roads! we got rarely jounced i' th' trolly.'—*Moor.* *Wel.*, *troell*.

TRUCK. Rubbish, refuse. A field or bank foul with speargrass or weeds is said to be 'full o' *truck*.' 'Nawn but a bargain o' *truck*,' applied to a lot of rubbish.—*Moor.* *Truck*, U. S., applied to vegetable stuff.

Ger., *trug*, deceit, deception; *It.*, *truccare*; *Fr.*, *troquer*, to barter, swop, chop, swab, scorse, Colgr.; or from *Ger.*, *triegen*, to draw, as goods to market.

TRULLIBUES. A butcher's term for entrails. 'Tripe and *trullibubs*;' *Suff.*, *N. Ang.*, *trolly-bags*; *Ger.*, *trollen*, to roll, coil round.

TRUNCH-MADE. Short and thick, squab. *Dan.*, *trunte*, a stub, log. *Fr.*, *tronché*.

TRY. To purify, melt down by fire, as the suet of hogs.

Specially applied on the E. coast to boiling down whale's blubber; *Ger.*, *thran*, blubber, train oil; *thranen*, to distil, drop; *Sw.-Goth.*, *trā*, to waste away; *Isl.*, *tran*, humorem qui lacrimarum instar guttatim defluit.—*Anderssen's* Iceland, quoted by *Ihre*, who objects to its current der. in Skinner, copied by later Eng. lexicographers from *Fr.*, *trincer*; *Lat.* *trahere*, to drag.

Try, a corn sieve; used in some Eng. dialects. An illustration from *Sir T. Elyot's*, *the Governor*, is given in Richardson's Dict.

They will not pass through the holes of the sieve, ruddle, or *try*, if they be narrow.—*Holland's Plutarch*, p. 26.

TULY. Poorly. 'Tuly-stomached.' 'A well naaba, how de yeow fare?' 'Wa' naaba, but *tuly*.'

A. S., *twilic*, doubtful, uncertain, anxious; *Fris.*, *dwaale*; *Dan.*, *dwaale*, mawkish, torpid, sleepy; *Moes.-Goth.*, *dwaala*, dull, foolish. *Schilter's Thesaur.* *Ant. Teut.* has *artuaalen*, torpere; the *Niebel. Lied.*, has *twalm*, a trance.

Twaly, vexed, ill-tempered, *Salop*; *Wel.*, *dywalu*, to be enraged; *Dut.*, *dul*; *twily*, restless, wearisome, *Somerset*; *twily*, small and weakly, *Dorset*. *Twely*, qualmish, in delicate health, *Essex* and *Camb.* *Twall*, a whim, *Suff.*

Tuly appears to imply that languid, doubtful, fluctuating state of health in which there appears no convalescence. Su.-Goth., *dwala*, a passive state between life and death; *dwæljās*, morari, cunctari.—‘Magnæ Britannice nonnulli incolæ *dwaule* appellanti mentis illam alienationem sub quâ ægrotantes deliria proferunt.’—*Ihre’s Su.-Goth. Lex.*, 1769. *Dwale*, herbe, morella sompnifera.—Pr. Pv. The term is applied by Chaucer and other early writers to the deadly nightshade, *atropa belladonna*, for its sleeping properties.

TRUNKING. Lobster and crab catching with conical wicker cages or pots, baited inside, and sunk with lines and weights in the sea.

Trunke for kepyng of fysche, gurgustium, Pr. Pv. In the Cath. Ang., a N. Ang. Eng. Lat. Lex., 1483, it is *nassa* (a wicker basket with narrow neck for catching fish.)

Su.-Goth., *drunkna*, to submerge; Ger., *trunken*.

TUNMERE. The line of procession in parochial perambulations.

A. S., *tun*, a town, territory; *mæra*, boundaries.

TUSSOCKS. Rusty knots of coarse sedgy grass, thick tufts of rank growth in corn. Wel., *tuswaucg*, a tuft.

O. Eng., *thussoc*, a tuft of loose hair, or of any sort. See *Nares*.

TUTSON. The periwinkle flower, *Hypericum androsæmum*, Lin.

In old works *tulsayne*; Fr., *toute-sainé*, all wholesome. Some derive from *tutti santi*, all saints. Rather from its Greek bot. name, *androsæmum*, man’s blood, from the claret colour juice of its ripe capsule, thus *tout sang*, or more probably *toute saignée*, every bleeding, from its being used, says *Duchesse*, to stop hemorrhages.—*Prior’s Pop. Names Brit. Plants*.

TUTTER. Trouble, fuss. ‘What a *tutter* he makes of it.’ Dut., and L. Ger., *tuyten*, to blow a horn, make a noise, rustling or disturbance.

TUZZY-MUZZY. Rough, dishevelled, *touzed and mouzed*. See *toze*.

TWINNY. To rob a cask before it is broached.

Su.-Goth., *twina*; Isl., *dwina*; A. S., *dwinan*, to melt gradually, lessen, dissolve, and dwindle away; Prov. Dan., *dwine*, a dripping, trickling, leavings or dregs from a cask’s bottom. A. S., *cwanian*, to pine away.

TWITTY. Cross, snappish, reproachful. A. S., *ætwtitan*, to reproach.

Twit, a fit of hasty ill humour, snappishness, Northants; *tutty*, sullen, Beds. *Tuttle*, an awkward ill-tempered fellow, Lanc. Wel., *cwithawl*, perverse, untoward,

TWITTLE. To prate, *twittle-twattle*, *twit-com-twat*, idle gossiping talk. Su.-Goth., *qwtitra*, to chirrup, chatter like a bird. Fl., *quetteren*; Isl., *kwittr*; Wel., *chwitian*.

First he’s subjected to all the pukings, longings, and peevish importunities that a breeding woman gives those about her till she’s laid, and then comes the squalling of the child, and the *twittle-twattle* gossipings of the nurse and midwife, that must be well treated too, well lodg’d and well paid.—*L’Estrange’s Quevedo*.

TWIZZLE. To turn in quick rotations. A sheep in the staggers is said ‘ta fare dunt an ta *twizzled* about stamminly.’

TYE. An extensive common pasture, a word used in central Suffolk and North Essex.

‘No researches have hitherto ascertained the derivation of the word *says Forby*.’ Isl., *teigr*; Su.-Goth., *teg*, a piece of general public land; Dan., *tye*, to resort to, have recourse to; Sax., *teag*, a common.

UNDER-DECK. The low broad tub into which wort runs from the mash tub. O. H. G. *dekjan*, Dut., *dekken*, to cover, spread out.

UNEATHILY. Unwieldily, hard to put in motion. A. S., *uneathe ic.*

UNFRAW. To thaw, or to *unfriz*, as a native would say. See *frawn*.

UNSENSED. Stunned, stupified; also insane.

UNSTOWLY. Unruly, applied to children. Dirty, disorderly. *Stow*, to confine, as cattle in a pound or yard. Isl. and Fris., *sto*, a fixed place.

UPPEN. Mention, reveal, disclose. A. S., *yppan*, to disclose, betray.

UPRIGHT. On his own means. 'A live *upright* on 'a's fortien.'

More *right upper*, less inclined.

UPSTARING. Presuming.

UTIC. The Whinchat, from its note.

VAUNCE-ROOF. The garret. Possibly from Fr., *vanner*, to ventilate. Or *avancer* to put forth.

VERGYN. An ancient package of herring.

'Itm pd for a *virgyn* of haringe, lijs.'—*L'Estrange's Household Accounts*, 1547. In 1549, 200 white herrings are charged in the same account the same amount. In 1547, 2 barrels of white herring are charged at 12s. 8d. per barril.

Isl., *verja*, covering, wrapping; *vergogn*, fishing tackle.

VESSEL, FASSEL. Half a quarter of a sheet of writing paper. A term used in the Bury and other E. Ang. schools. See *frawl*.

The most probable derivation of this school-boy phrase seems to be that supplied by *Lemon*, 'Lat., *fasciculus*, or *fasciola*; quasi, *vassiola*, a vessel or small slip of paper.'

It appears to be a Med.-Lat. corruption. *Ducange's Gloss. ed Adelung*, has '*Fessellus*, fasciculus, *faiscellus*, in alia.' The Arabic however has *fasi*, a section, article, chapter, or other division of a book.

VICE. A winding stair; the central shaft or stay of a tower stair.

'*Vyce*, rownde grece or steyer coclea.'—*Pr. Pv.* *Vyce*, a townrnyng stayre; *Vis*, Palse. The *vyce* dore of the steeple is mentioned in churchwardens' accounts at Walden, Essex. In Gage's Suffolk, pp. 141-2, among payments for building Little Saxham Hall, 1506, occur disbursements for a *vice* of freestone and another of brick, the last called in the context a 'staier.'—*Way's Notes to Pr. Pv.*

O. Fr., *vis*, *viz*, the spindle of a press; a winding staire.—*Cotgr. & Roquefort*

VIRGIN MARY THISTLE. The *Carduus Marianus*, or blessed thistle.

Tusser includes it in his March abstract of herbs and roots for salads and sauce.

VOIDER. A clothes basket. 'A wooden flasket for linnen cloaths.'

—*Bp. Kennett*. O. Fr., *vuyder*, to hollow out.

Itm pd for a payer of *voyder yt my Mr. gaffe ye seid Sir John*, xd.—*L'Estrange Household Accounts*.

WAD. The edge of grass, hay, or stubble left higher than other parts in mowing a field, between each mower's work. A mark set to guide in ploughing.

In the Su.-Goth. lang., *wad*, *wada*, denotes the given direction of two stakings carried in a straight line, so that each owner might mow his crop of hay. In the same way marshlands admitting of no other demarcation were divided.—*Thre*. Ger., *schwad*, a row of mowed corn.

WADMAL. Coarse thick woollen, a great coat of *duffle*.

'*Woadmel* is a hairy, coarse stuff, made of Iceland wool, brought thence by our seamen to Norfolk and Suffolk'—*Ray's Eastern Words*. Isl., *vadmal*. Dan., *vadmel*, coarse frieze. *Thre*, in his *Su.-Goth. Lex.*, has a long article upon *wadmal* cloth, deriving its name from *wad*, worth, price, and *mæla*, to

measure; it forming a common standard of value in early times when scarcity of coin necessitated barter.

WAHTS. Any edible greens, as cabbage sprouts, turnip tops, &c.

'What are ye got for dinner?' 'Pork an *wahts*.' Cor. of *wort*.

A. S., *wurt*.

WALLIS. The withers of a horse. Wel, *gwöell ysgwoyz*, the shoulder blade. In Teesdale, *warrish*; Cumb., *warridge*; Dut., *gewrichten*; Ger., *widderist*.

WALLOP. I.—To hurry along with violent unwieldy effort. II.

—To wrap up in clumsy hasty fashion; cor. of *envelop*. In Heref., to *wobble*. Sc., *wrabil*; L. Ger., *wurbelen*.

I.—Su.-Goth., *walla*, said de motu inconstante qualis est vagantium et erronum.—*Ihre*. L. Ger., *walop*, to gallop.—*Kilian's Appendix*.

WALTER. To cause extreme fatigue and exhaustion. 'I'm right-on *waltered* out by my long journey.' A. S., *wealtian*, to reel, stagger; *walted*, said of grass or corn beat down by wind, or trampled. Said also of one rolled in the mire. A ship *walts* (is cranky. Eng. and U. S.) when her ballast does not suffice to bear her sails to keep her stiff.—*Bailey*. *Walt*, to throw down. A sheep on its back is *rig-welted*.—*Leeds*.

'Walterynge, or welwynge, or walowynge, *Pr. Pv.* O. F., *voultrant*, *walterynge* as a shyppe dothe at the anker, or one yt tourneth from syde to syde.—*Palasg.* *Welter*, to reel or stagger, N. Ang. Isl., *valter*; Sw., *weltra*, to overturn; L. Ger., *walian*; hence '*weltering* in blood.' Chest., *walt*; Lanc., *wawt*, to upset a carriage. Sc., *tolter*, to reel; Su.-Goth., *tulta*.

And some I make in a rope to totter and *walter*.—*Skelton*.

'Whose *waltring* tongues did lick their hissing mouths.'—*Surrey's Virgil*.

'From bottom depth doth *weltre* up the seas.—*Id.*

WALTHAM'S CALF. As wise as, that went nine miles to suck a bull! A very old local saw.

As wise as *Waltham's Calf*.—*Skelton's Colin Clout*.

And thinke me as wise as *Waltham's Calf*.—*Heywood's Dialogue on Proverbs in the Eng. Language*, 1546.

As wise as *Waltham's Calf*, that ran nine miles to suck a bull.—*Ray's Proverbs*.

'As wise as *Wallon's Calf*,—is fayne to return home more foole than he come.'—*Arthur Hall's Works*, 1579.

He that shall do it, is himself more akin to *Waltham's Calf*, that was to suck part of that Bull's milk that had none at all.—*Fairfax*.

A fine fetch for a devil this, is it not? cry'd Lucifer. But hell is no more the hell it was when I knew it first than chalk is cheese, and the devils now-a-days are so damndly insipid and dry, they're hardly worth the roasting. A senseless puppy to come back to me with a story of *Waltham's Calf*, that went nine miles to suck a bull.—*L'Estrange's Quevedo*.

WAMBLE, WOBBLE. To reel, totter along from side to side. To move fast with effort and agitation, as the gallop of a cow or cart-horse. Somerset, to *wammell*; the L. Ger., *wummelen*. A cow chewing a turnip awkwardly, is said 'to *wobble* or *wamble* it about in 'ar mouth.' II.—**WAMBLE.** To retch, to feel queasy, to vomit.

I.—Isl., *vambla*; L. Ger. *wommelen*; Sw., *wämia* and *qwabbel*; Fris., *vamler* and *wommelik*; Ger., *wabbeln* and *schwabbeln*; A. S., *wapelian*, with senses of to be qualmish, to wabble, shake, waddle.

II.—‘*Wamelynge* of the stomake, nausia, *Pr. Pv.* Allecter, to *wamble* as a queasie stomacke doth.—*Colgr.* Su.-Goth., *wāmb*, the belly; *wamjas*; Isl., *vemuleg*, inclined to vomit.

Instead of comfits and sugar to strew him with, take well in worth a farthing-worth of flour to whiten him over and *wamble* him in.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff.*

The sixt is self-slothe, when the soule hath a *wambling* and fulsome aime at the promise.—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

Upon taking a soup of the same liquor, their stomachs *wambled*, and up came the water, frogs and all.—*L'Estrange's Æsop's Fables.*

WANCKLE, WANKY. Weak, pliant; *winky-wanky.* A. S., *wancol*. Isl., *vanki*; *wankelly*, N. Ang.; Su.-Goth., *wanka*; O. H. G., *wankel*. Fries. and Dut., *wankel*.

‘As *wanckle* as water.’ *Wankle* weather, ‘changeable’—*Whitby.* *Wangle*, Salop and Chesh.; *wankling*, weakly, Heref. and Northants.

WANGHER. Large, handsome, strapping, said of a girl especially.

Isl., *vænneleikr*, of pretty appearance, beautiful; Su.-Goth., *wæn*; Wel., *gwen*; (Bret., *gwener*, Venus.) The Dan. has *vangher*, big with child. *Wanghe*, Old Sicamb, the calf of the leg; L. Ger., *wanghe*, a buffet on the cheek or ears, which is its meaning in Leicestershire; a blow, Somerset.

WHANG, a thick piece of aught eatable; Wel., *gwang*, a gorging, glutting; Su.-Goth., *swanger*, hungry. WHANG, a leather thong; to flog with one. A. S., *thwang*. A *whanging* fellow, a stout lusty body, N. Ang.

WANG-TOOTH. A molar tooth or grinder, the jaw or eye-tooth.

A. S., *wang* a jaw-bone, the cheek; Su.-Goth., *wang*; Isl., *vangi*; It., *guancia*. Wange-tooth, molaris.—*Pr. Pv.*

‘Our manciple I hope he wol be ded,
Swa werkes ay the *wanges* in his hed.’

—*Chaucer's Norfolk Reve's Tale.*

WANT. A mole. A. S., *wand*, a mole; *wande-weorp*, a casting up, a mole-hill; *moldiwarps* in some dialects; in Wessex *wont-heaves* and *wont-hills*; Salop, *wont*.

WANTY. A large girth or surcingle for a packhorse: L. Ger., *want* a fillet, binding; Sc., *wanton*, a girth.

‘A pannel and *wanty*, pack-saddle and ped.’—*Tusser.*

WANZE. To waste, pine, wither away. A. S., *wansian*, to lessen. *Wansynge*, *wasyng*, decrescencia.—*Pr. Pv.*

Think on Job that was so ryche. He wax pore fro day to day.

His bestys dyeden in yche dyche. His kateile *wanshed* alle away.—*Lydgate.*

So to hold them there, as a naile fastened in a sure place from *wanzing* and leaking out.—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

Many bewrayed themselves to be time servers and *wanzed* away to nothing as fast as ever they seemed to come forward.—*Id.*

As it was said of *Ottoman's* horse, that where he had once set his feet, grasse would no more grow after; so where the devotions of these hypocrites takes place, religion and the power of godliness *wanze* and perish.—*Id.*

When the Lord separates the pretious from the vile and shewes them the vanity and *wanzingnesse* of their own principle.—*Id.*

WAP. To wrap. Su.-Goth., *wipa*, involve.—*Forby.*

Lappyn, whappynge, happyng. or hyllynge.—*Pr. Pv.* The L. Ger., has *happen*, to lay hold of, catch up.

Sw., *vepa*, any kind of cloth for lapping about a thing; Su.-Goth., *svepa*; Isl., *vafa*, to wrap up.

WAP, WHAP, WHOP. To beat, thrash. Wel., *wab*, a slap; *wabiaw*, to cuff; Su.-Goth., *wipa*, to beat.

At this all the company fell in a great laughing, and Sir James was amazed that a woman should so *wap* him in a whinyard.—*Merie Tales of Skelton*.

WAPPER-JAWS. A wry mouth. L. Ger., and Fl., *wapperen*, to mumble, waggle about; A. S., *waþean*, to waver; *wapper-eyed*, sore-eyed, Devon.

Wapper, to flutter, Somerset. *Wappered*, fatigued, restless, Glouc.

WAPS, WAPSY. A wasp. A. S., *wæps*.

WAPES. Low spirits, nervous, yawning moods; *wape*, pale, Essex. The A. S. has *wepan*, to mourn; the Su.-Goth., *wāp*, dull, stupid.

WARBLE, WARBLER. A hard swelling in cattle hides, produced by the larvæ of the ox-gad fly, which, deposited under the animal's skin, create a protuberance. *War-beetles*, large maggots bred in the backs of cattle. A. S., *wear*; Ger., *weer*, a knot, a knob; in Dorset, a *wornüil*.

Wards, hardness of skin on hands or feet.

Warbote wyrme, boa, *Pr. Pv.* Bibo (bubo) exbane or *warbodylle*.—*Iat. Eng. Vocab.*, Roy, MS. *Warbot*, a worme, escarbot, Palsg.—*Way's Notes to Pr. Pr.*

WARP. Four herrings make a warp.—*East and South Coast Fisherman's Tale*. See page 300. A. S., *a-worpan*, to throw out.

Der. apparently from the mode of reckoning, the fisherman throwing out two in each hand at every count.

Paid *xs* for bryngyng of *vj warpe* of stockfyshe and *vj warpe* of lytill codde callyd habburdyn, *iiijd*.—*L'Estrange, Household Accounts*, 1522.

On those imbeached shelves stamped his footing where cods and dog-fish swam not a warp of weeks fore running.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

WARPING. Said of a hen laying eggs. Dan., *værpe*.

WASH. A narrow path through a wood. O. H. G., *waso*; Ger., *wasen*, turf.

WASH-BOUGHS. Lower straggling branches and undergrowth of trees. L. Ger., *wassen*, excrescere; Ger., *wase*, a bundle of brushwood.

WASH-DISH. The titmouse, a term the East Anglian settlers in Gower, Pembroke, *temp.* Hen. I. carried with them (see page 502); *dish-washer*, the wagtail, Dorset and Devon.

Nay, shall we not be as wise as the unreasonable creatures, the Storke, the Crane, the Turtle, the Swallow, the little *Wash-dish*?—*Rogers' Lost Sheep*.

WASK. A paviour's rammer; *wasking*, a beating.

Possibly a corruption from the Dan., *bask*, to beat thump; or from the Wel. roots *gwag* and *gwast*. More probably the Wel. *pastynew*, to beat with a long staff.

WASTE, WASTER. To bang or cudgel. '*Waster* and buckler,' an Old Eng. name for cudgel play. Wel., *pastwyn*, a cudgel; Bret., *baz*; Fr., *baston*; Fl., *bussato*, cudgelled. *Buckler* is also a Keltic word; the Wel. and Corn., *buccled*; Ir., *buicleir*.

Waster, Sc., a trident for striking salmon; Isl., *vas*, cum impetu ferri.—*Jamieson*.

WATER-DOGS. Small, dark, rounded clouds indicating rain.

WATER-SLAIN. Said of weak tea; in Suff., of wet undrained land.

WATER-WHELPS. Dumplings boiled *sad*, or kneaded without yeast or eggs.

WAVER. A pond, Suff. Dut., *vyver*:

Lat., *vivarium*; 'wavowre, stondynge water,' *Pr. Pv.*; *wayre*, where water is holde, Palsg.

WEAR, KNUR. A knot or protuberance in a tree.

Warre or knobbe of a tree. *Pr. Pv.*; Neu., *warre* or knobbe, Palsg.; *Nouwez*, full of knurres, knottie, knobbie, *Colgr.* A. S., *wear*; L. Ger., *weeren*.

WEATHER-HEAD. The secondary rainbow; above the primary.

Weather-gall; N. Ang., indicating wet weather; Ger., *wasser-galle*; Wilts., *water-gall*; *Weather-go*, the end of a rainbow as seen in the morning in showery weather, Cumb.; Wel., *gwawl*, a reflected light.

WEAVERS' BEEF, of Colchester,—*Sprats*.

These are *sprats*, caught hereabouts and brought hither in incredible abundance, whereon the poor weavers (numerous in this city) make much of their repast, cutting rands, rumps, surloyns, chines, and all joynts of beef out of them, as lasting in season well nigh a quarter of a year. They are the *Minums* of the sea, and their cheapness is the worst thing (well considered, the best), which can be said of them. Were they as dear, they would be as toothsome (being altogether as wholesome) as *Anchovies*, for then the price would give a high gust unto them in the judgment of pallat men.—*Fuller's Worthies, Essex.*

WEAZEL-LING. The lamprey, *gadus mustela*, Lin.

Mustela Marina, called by some a *weazel ling*, which, salted and dried, becomes a good Lenten dish.—*Sir T. Browne.*

WEEVILS (A. S., *wifel*; Fris., *wefel*). A common name for coleopterous insects of genus *curculio*, Lin.

Their luvæ are very destructive in granaries, 'Breeding in Norf. and Suff. they are called *bowdes*.—*Ray.* (which see, ante.) 'Wevyl, or malte boode.'—*Pr. Pv.*

WELK. I.—To give a sound drubbing to. **II.**—To mark with wheals, contusions.

I.—Ger., *walken*, act of fulling, milling, hence fig. to cudgel, beat one soundly. **II.**—A S., *welca*, a wheal, pock.

'Her walked face with woful tears besprent.'—*Sacville's Induction*, p. 257.

WELK, WELT. I.—To soak, roll and macerate in a fluid. Fries. and Dut., *weeken*, to soak; A. S., *wealwian*, to roll, wallow. **II.**—To expose to sun and air to dry, as seeds, hay, onions, &c. Ger., *welken*; Dut., *verwelken*; and from the same A. S. root in its further sense of to dry, ripen.

Welk, to dry, to wither up, N. Ang.; *welted*, shrivelled, scorched, Northants.; shrunk, wasted, Sc.; to become pale, to fade; A. S., *wealwian*; *wilted*, Bucks. and U. S.; *wilt-down*, to look sheepish, an Americanism.

Welkyn, or seryn, or dryyn, *Pr. Pv.*

WELT. A border edge or narrow strip of a garment turned over to strengthen the hem stitched. Su.-Goth, *welta*; Isl., *vellta*.

I may not dully overpass the gallant beauty of their haven, which having but as it were a *welt* of land.—*Nash's Lenten Stuff.*

Urtica marina, * * * often found cast up by shore in great numbers, about the bigness of a button, clear and *welted*.—*Sir T. Browne.*

WEM. A small fretted place in a garment. A. S., *wem* a spot, stain. *Wemme* or spot, *Pr. Pv.*

This scuffling or bo-peep in the dark, they had awhile without *weam* or brack.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff.*

WENNEL. A calf just weaned.

Young colts with thy *wennels* together go serve.—*Tusser.*

WENT. The mesh of a net. See page 292.

FL., *want*, filets de pêcheur; Dut., *want*, rigging, fishing-nets, a mitten; It., *gant*; Sc., *wand*, wicker work; Fris., *wende*; O. Ger., *unentan*; Moes.-Goth., *wandjan*, vertere, mutari, revertere, from the act of net braiding.

WESSEL. A vessel,--very common. 'Mowthe of a *wesselle*,' *Pr. Pv.*

WESTY. Dizzy, giddy; O. Ger., *welzen*, to reel, or the A.S., *wesan*, to soak, sodden.

'Whiles he lies wallowing with a *westie* head,
And palish carcase on his brothel bed.'—*Bp. Hall's Satires*, b. iv.

WET ONE'S WHISTLE. To drink. *Wet the sickle*, drink given as earnest money in engaging reapers at harvest.

So was hire joly whistle *wel ywelle*.—*Chaucer's Norfolk Reve's Tale*.

WHART-WHARTLE. To tease, irritate, wear out the patience, var. of *thwart*; *wartle*, to wrangle, Northants.

Su.-Goth., *twar*; O. Ger., *dwerhi*; Fl., *dwers*, athwart, crooked, cross.

WHEATSEL BIRD. The cock chaffinch. From their congregating in flocks about harvest time.

WHEEL-SPUR. The raised horse path which in ancient roads ran between the two wheel tracks; Ger., *spur*, a track; A. S., *spor*.

Whele spore, orbita.—*Pr. Pv.*

WHELM. I. Half a hollow tree placed hollow downwards to form a small watercourse. II. To turn a tub or other vessel upside down to cover anything; L. Ger., *wemmelen*; circumversare, obversare; Su.-Goth., *hwimla*. The A. S. has, *helan*, to cover.

Whemmel or *whammel*, to turn upside down, to tumble over, N. Ang.; *whummelled*, upset, as a vessel of liquid, Teesdale. 'Wamme'lan like an eel,' Cumb.

Whemmlle, to totter and then upset. 'It *whemmed* ower.' It is said Sir Walter Scott was so struck with the expressiveness of the term, as used by a labourer, that he presented him with half a crown.—*Whitby Dialect*, 1855.

Whelmyn, a vessel. supino.—*Pr. Pv.*

WHEWT. To whistle, to squeak as a young bird. *Whew*, a whistle, N. Ang.; a low whine, Leeds.

WHIFF. Flavourless food. 'Neither *whiff* nor *whaff*,' unmeaning chat. N. Ang., *waffish*; 'wiffe, taste,' Palsg.; *west*, a musty taste, Northants.; Wel., *chwaeth*, taste; *chwytth*, a puff, blast, breath; Su.-Goth., *westa*; A. S., *wiffend*.

'I can nat away with this ale, it hath a *weffe*, elle est de mauveys goust.—*Palsgr.*

WHIFFLER. One who heads a procession to clear the way.

Whiffers are employed by the Norwich corporation when marching from the Guildhall to church on the Guild-day. Active men, armed like harlequins, with lath or latten swords, which they keep in continued motion *whiffing* the air, or bestowing a slap on the shoulders or posteriors of intrusive boys. Anciently they blew horns to clear the way. A. S., *wæfflere*; Dut. *wefflen*; Isl., *wifla*; Wel., *chwfw*; *waffle*, to wave, fluctuate, N. Ang.; *whiffle*, Craven, *waffler*, an unsteady person not to be depended on, Cumb.; *whiffle*, wyfle, wepene, bipennis, *Pr. Pv.*; to shift, as the wind, Northants.; *wiffe-waffle*, idle talk, Lanc.; L. Ger., *weffel*, the mark of a stripe. See also a note in *Nares*.

Whiffler, a meer trifter, a pitiful poor or inconsiderable wretch. *Whiffler* is also taken for a piper that plays on a fife in a company of foot-soldiers. Also a young freeman that goes before and waits upon the society or company to which he belongs, on some public solemnity.—*Phillips' World of Words*.

Item vj *wiffes*.—*Inventory of Sir J. Fastolfe's Armour*. Probably swords of wood for practice, remarks *Amyot*. He adds, in Elizabeth's time those who taught the soldiers their exercise were called *wyfflers*.

WHINNOCK. To sniver, whimper as a child; intensive of *whine*.

Su.-Goth., *wenga*; Sw., *hwina*; Ir., *cuinim*; Dut., *winuk*; *whinge*, to whine, cry, Teesdale.

WHIP-BELLY-VENGEANCE. Poor sour beer, or similar tippie.

WHIP-THE-CAT. I.—Said of extreme parsimony, grudging even scraps and shreds to the cat. II.—In Suf., applied to the custom of the village tailor going from house to house to work.

In Cumb. the latter is also called 'whipping the cat.'

Twice a year the tailor came to the house and fabricated the semi-annual stock of clothes for the male members, this being called '*whipping the cat*.—*Goodrich's (Peter Parley) Reminiscences of early New Eng. Customs.*

Su.-Goth., *wippa*, motitare se, sursum deorsum celeriter ferri, *wippa-kring*, circumcursitare.—*Ihre.* Dut., *wippen*, to skip about, leap over. Su.-Goth., *kate*, house, dwelling.

Whip-the-cat, said of a whist-player who wins all the tricks in one deal.—Northampts.

WHITTERY. Pale and sickly. Applied to puny children.

Whitter, fretful and plaining. 'Tha'll *whitter* theesen to death!'—*Leeds Dial.*

Whitter, to murmur, pine; *whittering*, tedious; *whittery*, fretful, Northants. A. S., *wite*, affliction, torment; *witan*, to twit, complain; *withet*, opposed to, contradictory.

WHID, E. Ang., is a quarrel, contention. Isl., *hvidra*, to attack smartly; Sc., *whither*, to belabour. Sc., *witter*, to fight; Fl., *veter*.

Whitter, Sc., any thing of weak growth is a *whitter*, Sc. *Twitter*, slender, is used in same sense. *Whitter*, loquacity, prattle, Roxb. A garrulous woman is a perfect *whitter-whatter*. A struggling poor man is a *witterin* body.

WHITTLE. To peel the bark off sticks; to cut away in small slices a stick with a knife. A. S., *hwitel*, a knife; *hwitta*, a sharpener.

One of the most famous of modern Americanisms.

Whet, *white*, to cut with a knife; '*whiting* sticks;' *whittle-te-whet*, to sharpen, set an edge on; *whittle*, a clasp-knife, N. Ang.; Sc., *thewittel*, *thewtill*; A. S., *thwitan*; Sax., *hwellan*. *Whittle*, to haggle in cutting, Cumb.; to shave or plane wood with a knife.—*Whitby*. In Salop, to *swite*, to *thwite*; *whittle*, to wear by friction, to chafe, Northants. To whittle sticks, to cut off the bark with a knife to make them white.—*Ray's E. Ang. Words*.

Thwytynge, or *whytynge*, scissulatus, *Pr. Pv.* *Thwytyng* is properly the cutting of little chippes from a stick.—*Carew's Cornwall*.

'I *thwyte* a stycke, or I cutt lytell peces from a thyng.—*Palsgr., Fr.-Eng. Dict.*, 1530. *Whittle*, Sc., applied to the harvest hook. L. Ger., *wette*, edge of a knife.

'The knot, a very dull *whittle* may cut asunder.—*Bp. Hall*.

Whittled is also in the U. S., tipsy, drunk, answering to our modern 'cut.'

In this sense *whittled* is a very old English slang term, of which we give an East Ang. illustration. See *Nares* for a number of others.

'Skelton did file all the cuppes in the house and *whittled* the frere, that at the last the frere was in myne eames peason.'—*Merie Tales of Skelton*.

WHOA, WOOH, WOOF, WO THEN. Stay, stop, the immemorial cry of the waggoner to his team; Wel., *wo*.

'There's no *wo* in him,' and 'he knows no *wo*,' common expressions for a good workman.

WHOLE-FOOTED. Very intimate, closely confederate.

WHOP, WHAP. A heavy blow; Wel., *wab*, a slap; *wabio*, to cuff.

WHYBIBBLE. A whimsy, idle fancy, silly scruple. See *squibobble*.

WIDDLES. Very young ducks. Young chickens are called *biddies*.

Widdle, Sc., wriggling, bustling motion; Ger., *wedeln*, to wag the tail.

WILCH. The wicker strainer set upright in the mash tub to prevent the grains from running off, with the wort. L. Ger., *weyche*, macerare in aquâ, insuccare liquore.—*Kilian*, In Suff. the sediment or lees of beer, wine, &c.

Wel., *gwaellawd*, dregs, sediment.

WILLOCK. A guillemot, or any sea-bird of the Awk or Diver kind. *Willick*, a young heron, *Lothians*. Also the Puffin or *Alca Arctica*.

WIND-HOVER. The kestrel. *Tinnunculus alaudarius*. From its hovering movements in quest of mice and other prey.

Stand-gale and crutch-tail are similarly applied to the kite.

And as a sillie kight (not falcon like that fie,

Nor yet presume to hover by Mount Helicon on hie).—*Gascoigne*.

WINGE. To shrivel as fruit overkept. Fris., *dwinje*; Isl., *dvina*.

WINNOL-FAR. The great horse-fair now held at Downham Market, and originally granted to St. Winwaloe's Priory, Wereham.

WINNOL WEATHER. The stormy weather common at the beginning of March, the third of which is the anniversary of St. *Winwaloe*, a British Saint.

First comes David,

Then comes Chad,

Then comes Winnol,

Blowing like mad.

WIPS AND STRAES. Odds and ends, heads and straws of corn; Dan., *'wipper og straae.'*

One of the provincialisms of the Danish island of Zealand.

WISHLY, WISLY. Eagerly, earnestly, wistfully. 'The children eyed the plum pudding *wishly*.'

Sike lay the manciple on a maladie,

Men wenden *wisly* that he should die.

—*Chaucer's Norfolk Reve's Tale*.

This miller hath so *wisly* bibbed ale,

That as an hors he snorteth in his slepe.—*Id*.

Dut., *wis* certain, sure, L. Ger., *wistisch*.

WONG. An agricultural division or district of some uninclosed parishes. Spelman says of arable rather than pasture land.

A. S., *wong*. A very common name for a field, Northants.

'Wonge of londe'.—*Pr. Pv.* Dan., *vænger*; Su.-Goth, *wang*.

WONMIL CHEESE. Made of one meal or milking. See *bang*.

WOOD-SPRITE. The woodpecker.

WOOSH. The teamster's call to his horses to go to the left. Fr. *gauche*.

WORK. To ache, to throb; violent head ache. A. S., *wære*, pain.

Wark, N. Ang.; *warch*, Chesh. and Lanc., in common use.

'*Werkyn* and akyn as a soore lymme, *werkynge* or heed ake'.—*Pr. Pv.*

For those Yrlish men are ever good to the Church;

Whan kynges dysobeye yt, than they begynne to *worch*.—*Bp. Bale*.

WORRELL. The round cap or ferrule of a stick, umbrella, &c.

Sc., *virle*, a small ring put round a body to keep it firm.

Old Eng., *vyroll*; Fr., *virolle*; Somerset, *worral*. *Vardle*, a common eye or thimble of a gate with a spike only.—*Marshall's Rural Economy of Norfolk*.

Vyrolfe of a knife, spirula, *Pr. Pv.*; O. Fr., *virole*, an iron ring put about the end of a staff to strengthen it and keep it from riving; *viromner*, to veere, wind about; *virer*, to whirl about.—*Colgr.* See *vyce*, ante.

WOULDER. To wrap or roll up in a bandage. Ger., *welteren*.

WOULDERS. Bandages. 'Teent quite well, I'm forced to keep the *woulders* on.' 'Woldyngge, or stronge byyndyngge,' provolucio.—*Pr. Pv.*

'*Wouling* (a sea-term), the winding ropes hard round a yard or mast of a ship after it has been fish'd or strengthened, to make it hold better.—*Phillips's World of Words.* Dut., *woelen*, to wind about with a cord; Prov. Ger., *wuhling*.

WRATTLE. To dry or parch. *Wrastling-pole*, see *arseling* and *ressling*. Wel., *crasu*, to dry, roast; *craslyd*, parched.

WRRAWL. To wrangle. '*Wraw*, froward, on-goodly, perversus, exasperans,' *Pr. Pv.*

O. Eng., *wrayle*, chatter, abuse. Dut., *rallen*, Sw., *ralla*.

Though *wrangling* and *rocking* be noisome so near.—*Tusser.*

With brawling fools that *wraul* for every wrong.—*Id.*

WRET. A wart. *Wrette*, *Pr. Pv.*; L. Ger., *wratte*.

Wret-weed or *wart-weed*, sun spurge. *euphorbia helioscopia*.

WRIIGLER. A term applied to the quick-writhing *launce*, or sand eel.

WRONGS. The larger boughs of timber trees, the crooked branches.

Wrong, crooked; a *wrong* man or woman; Norf., *Grose*. Applied in ship-building to the crooked timbers, as distinguished from the body or upright timbers; *wranglands*, misgrowing trees that will never produce timber.—*Bailey.*

'*Wronge* in foorme of werke, curvus'—*Pr. Pv.* Su.-Goth., *wrunga*, to distort.

WRY. To cover close; '*wrie* him warm.' A. S., *wrigan*, to clothe; *wrying*, bed clothes, covering.

But those which touch their souls, especially to kill their lusts, they care not how narrow they frame them, even as the bed and covering of which *Esay* speaks, that is so narrow that it will not *wry* them warme.—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

WUNT. To sit as a hen. A. S., *wunian*, to abide.

WURROW. To burrow, as holes of crabs, &c.

The Ger., *wehre* corresponds with the A. S., *beorgh*, a burrow.

YAFFLE. To snatch or take illicitly, as a poacher's dog a hare; Wel., *gavael*, to grasp, lay hold of.

Yaffling, eating.—*Grose's Cant Words.*

YAG. To irritate by ill-natured remarks or acts, to persist in teasing and provoking. Two female servants who look favourably on the same lad 'are ollost *yagging* one another.—*Spurdens.*

Su.-Goth., *jaga*, to follow after, pursue vehemently; hence applied to the chase.—*Thre.*

YALE. A small quantity. Fr., *gale*, a measure.

YANGLE. To tether a horse by fastening a fore and hind leg.

Ger., *hangen*; Prov. Ger., *hangelen*, to fasten, attach to, or the Su.-Goth., and Isl., *hank*, a chain, fetter. See under *hingin*.

YANK. To squeal, as a child in pain. Dut., *janken*.

The wild gander leads his flock through the cool night;

Ya-honk, he says, and sounds it down to me like an invitation.

Walt Whitman.

YARD. The garden belonging to a cottage or ordinary messuage.

A. S., *yrđ*, Wel., *gardd*, a little garden. Sc., *garth*.

YARMOUTH CAPON. A red herring. In Scotland, a Glasgow magistrate. See other slang terms under herring, p. 579.

YARMOUTH MITTENS. Bruised or chapped hands.

YARWHELP. *Scolopax Egocephala*, Lin. The black-tailed Godwit.

A *yarwhelp*, so thought to be named from its note.—Sir T. Browne.

Common about Breydon, near Yarmouth, says Morris, *Brit. Birds*, v. 4. He adds, its note has been compared to the syllables, *grutto, grutto, grutto*.

YARY. Brisk. A. S., *gearo*; Su.-Goth., *yr*, vivacious.

YAUP, YARM, YAWM, YAWL, YAMMER. To shriek or yell. Isl., *gola*; A. S., *geomerian*; Ger., *jammer*; Su.-Goth., *jama*.

YELK, YULK. Clay kneaded with straw and stubble for wattle and dab, in Norf. In Suf., to level and ram down a clay floor or foundations.

A. S., *hulc*, a den, cabin, cottage.

YELM. To lay straw in quantities and regular order to be used by a thatcher. The portion so laid down ready for the thatcher, or or as much as can be conveniently carried under the arm for that purpose. A. S., *haelm*, stubble; O. Fr. *chaulme*; Isl., *halmr*.

Also A. S., *gylm*, a handful of reaped corn, a bundle, *bottle* of straw.

And in his owen chambre (the miller) hem made a bedde,
With shetes and with *chalons faire* yspredde.

—Chaucer's *Norfolk Reve's Tale*.

YERK, JERK. To beat, switch soundly, a smart stroke. Isl., *hreckia*; Su.-Goth., *yercken*.

That with his whyp his mares was wonte to *yarke*.—Skelton.

So a body having bequeathed it one degree of sturt or *yerk*, in one now of time, and hitching thereupon one atome of room, may upon taking in ten or twenty degrees of the same, in the next, sturt to many atoms in length.—*Fairfax*.

YFE. The yew tree, Suff. 'V tree (*uv tre*) taxus,' *Pr. Pv.* Fr., *if*.

Wel., *ywydd* (th); Gael., *tuthar*; Corn., *hivin*; A. S., *iv*; Sp., *iva*; Ger., *eibe*; O. H. G., *iwa*.

YIR. To chirp like a new hatched chicken or young bird. In Exmoor Dial., to *yeppy*.

Yppyn as bryddys, pululo.—*Pr. Pv.*

YIPPER. Brisk, uppish. Su.-Goth., *yppig*, superb, vanus, *ypper*; Isl., *yppare*, distinguished, surpassing.

YOFERS, or SPURSHERS. Straight fir poles for scaffolding, &c.; Gael., *giubhas* (*bh* pron. in Gaelic *v*) *giuthas*, fir trees.

Spurshers may der. from *spar*; Su.-Goth., *sparre* and *spärre*, a beam, prop; the root, O. G., *sparjan*, to fasten. Possibly the term applies to scaffold poles used in *spurgin* (which see), or plastering. L. Ger., *spurgil*; Fr., *espurger*.

YOLK. The dirty greasy state of wool after shearing and before it is washed.

The grease of wool, Northampt.; *yokey*, tawney, *yoky-wool*, unwashed, Devon. Wel., *gole*, a washing, lye, urine; *golei*, to cleanse, washed; in *olchi*, unwashed.

YOPPEN. Barking, yelping. N. Ang., *yaupin*; Isl., *yapa*; Fr., *japper*; L. Ger., *galpen*. Northants., *yowking*.

Wappet, a yelping cur, E. Ang. 'Wappyn, or baffyn, or snokyn, as howndys do whan they follow hire pray, or that they wolde harm to.'—*Pr. Pv.*

YULK. See *julk*.

ADDITIONS

AND

CORRECTIONS TO THE GLOSSARY.

MANY derivations which escaped the writer's search whilst the earlier sheets of the Glossary were passing through the press are supplied below. A number of derivations are corrected and added to. A number also have been abandoned as untenable, and other etymologies are here given in lieu.

From a considerable body of illustrations, some of which were omitted at the time under their proper heads by accident, and others were gleaned too late, a selection has been made to insert in this place.

The only new words now added to the Glossary are those with an asterisk prefixed.

ADDLE. *To thrive or flourish.* To the conjectural Keltic *etym* already given, may be added the A.S. *æthel*, growing fast or quick. Der. from the Su.-Goth., *adel* (Isl., *adall*), of noble blood or high qualities, and applied also (see examples in *Ihre's Lex.*) to vigorous growth and vegetation.

AWK—How often have we heard as arrant jangling in the pulpits as ever we did in the steeples, and professors ringing as *awk* as the bells, to give notice of the conflagration which they themselves were raising.—*L'Estrange's Cesop.*

BALKS—Nor that they set debate betwene their lords,
By earing up the balks that part their bounds.

—*Gascoigne's Steele Glas.*

BAMBLE. *To move awkwardly, to shamble.* The Sc. has a *bambling* child, clumsily made. Sp., *bambolcar*, to swing; Norm., *bamboler*; Walloon, *bambi*, to waver; Burg., *vambe*, the swing of a bell; Gr., *bambalo*, to stammer, hence It., *bambolo*, *bambo*, a child.—*Diez.* *Bancale*, said of one with crooked legs.—Walloon.

BANGLED. Fl., *bangheyd*, stifling; L. Ger., *banghen*, to languish. Su.-Goth., *bängel*; Ger., *bengel*, a cudgel, club.

BARK and TREE—Let none of them come between barke and tree, to defeat your faith and conversion.—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

If every poore soule should thus goe between barke and tree, and cavill, who should ever come to believe?—*D. Rogers' Naaman*, p. 122.

BARRATOR. A term specially levelled in early times against the men of Norfolk, by their neighbours.

The fullest notices of the word occur under many articles in *Ducange's Med. Lat. Gloss.*, folio ed., 1733. *Barare*, to deceive, *baratare*, to change about, *baratum*, cheating (It., *barattare*, to coney-catch, chop and change), *barataria*, fraud, false dealing in bargains and sales (It., *barratteria*, any trucking, chaffering, cogging, foisting, cozening, false dealing in huggar mugger, simony, indirect dealing in law, bribe taking, corrupt conscience), *baraterii*, brawlers, wranglers, *a baris*, the courts of law where they stir up litigation, impede settlement of causes, mix up fraud and falsehood in their hearing, and are corruptors of just judgment by bribes; *baraterii*, notione nonnihil diversa, vagabonds, mendicants, paupers, *baratator*, impostor, swindler, *barra*, the judgment bench, *barrare*, to debate, contest, litigate; O. Fr., *barroyer*, to use delays in law.

Barrator, was the angry term hurled (see p. 464) at Abbot Samson of Bury by his outwitted monks, on finding the quiet demure brother they had promoted as their head suddenly transformed into the vigorous reformer of their sloth and self-indulgence.

The *Island of Barataria* is immortalised as the scene of *Sancho Panza's* famous government, a locale which, strange enough bewildered so acute and critical an editor of *Don Quixote* as *Lockhart*. Spanish editors seem to have equally lost their way to it, *Lockhart* writes. *Pellicer* is at great pains to find out the true etymon of the word, which is without doubt given by *Cervantes* himself, *barato*, meaning in Spanish cheap. In old Spanish dictionaries *barato*, *barateria*, etc., have precisely the Ital. and Med. Lat. senses given above. The idea intended by *Cervantes* might possibly be akin to that of a Chateau en Espagne, or a sense which may be implied from one of the meanings of the O. It., *baratto*, deception, transformation; *barattare*, cambiar una cosa ad un'altra.

BASK. To buffet, baste; Su.-Goth., *bösta*; Isl., *beysta*; O. Fr., *bastre*; Goth., *basa*, to beat, thresh; Su.-Goth., *basa*; Bret., *bazata*; Dan., *baske*, to slap, thwack, flap.

Many things befall one in such an estate, which buffet and *baske* it shrewdly.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

Under an handsome gale we put to sea, * * * bnt it failed us, and soon proved worse than so, fresh and contrary, which forced us to be *basking* in those narrow seas.—*North's Lives*, ii., 341.

After three or four days *basking* thus in the Archipelago, with contrary winds, * * * with wind and current in our teeth.—*Id.*, ii., 34.

BUSK. Applied, says *Forby*, to fowls *basking* in the sun on a hot day in the most dusty place they can find, and scratching up the dust among their feathers, to rid themselves, it is said, of the vermin with which they are infested. Traces are left where a covey of partridges have been *busking*.

No fowler that had wylie witte But will forsee such hap,
That birds will always *buske* and bate And scape the fowler's trap.

Tuberville.—Of the Divers Passions.

Now to continue what my tale begun,

Lay Madam Partlet *basking* in the sun,

Breast high in sand; her sisters in a row

Enjoyed the beams above, the warmth below.—*Dryden*.

Probably from the *basking* or *baking* in the sun's warmth. Isl., *baka*; Lap., *pakestet*.

***BUSK** also occurs in East Ang. literature, with meanings clearly derived from It., *buscare*, to catch. 'To proul or shift by craft, and diligently search, to scramble for, to go a free-booting.'—*Florio*. O. F. *busquer*, to prowl, catch by hooke or crooke.—*Cotgr.* O. Sp., *boscar*, to track; *busca*, a hunting dog. Their trade is running up and down and through the city, like so many of Job's devils, perpetually *busking* after one thing or other, according as they are employed.—*North's Lives*, ii., 54.

The grocers declared they would throw up, and not deal in those commodities; insomuch that my Lord Rochester was frightened, and was inclined

to fall from this, and to *busk* for some other way to raise the supply.—*North's Lives*, ii., 122.

And so, sometimes a-try and sometimes a-hull, we *busked* it out, rain and snow continually falling.—*Id.*, ii., 316.

He was here at hand to *busk* for some other employment, as his friends or fortune might lift him into.—*Id.* ii., 363.

BUSK. I.—A kiss.. Su.-Goth., *puss*; Pers., *bus*. II.—A flock of sheep. Gael., *buachaille*, a keeper of sheep; Sc., *buse-airn*, an iron for marking sheep; *bust*, tar mark on sheep; A. S., *bosg*, a cattle enclosure, or may der. from the Lat. and It., *pascere*.

BATTRY. A tea kettle, Suff. Apparently a slang term, like the gipsy *mutteri-mongery-koovah*, a tea-pot; *kek-kavy*, Gipsy, is a tea-kettle, der. from the Heb. *kederah*; Gr. *kakkabe*.

BAWDA. Fr., *bourder*, to mock, jest, gibe at; Gael. *búrd*, a gibe; O. Fr., *be-hourdir*, to joust with lances, make a blustering noise.

BEAVER. O. Fr., *beuveter*, to drink, sup; *beuveur*, a tosser pot.—*Cotgr.* Lat., *bibere*.

BEEBLE. A.S., *bytel*, a mallet, Plat. Deut., *betel*, from Su.-Goth. root, *beta*, to strike.

If they get thee within their reach, thou must come to *knokham fair*, and what between the block and the *beetle*, be thumpd like a stock-fish.—*Nashe's Plaine Percevall*.

BEZZLE. To tippie, *debauch*, *drink greedily*. Possibly from the It., *bezza*, merry-making, mirth, or feasting. The date of the word's introduction into our language appears to be coincident with the dawn of the Italianising influences which characterised the literature of the Tudor epoch.

BIBBLE, to Tippie—Soft, quod one hyght sybyll,

And let me wyth you *bybyll*.—*Skelton*.

BIGG, barley—For to say truth, the *big* (viz., a four-rowed barley) is seldom ripe, and the oats which they call yeats are commonly first covered with snow.—*North's Lives*, i., 289.

BIGGES. *Jewels*. Dut., *bagge*, an ear jewel; Fries., *baech*.

BIESTS. Dut., *biezen*, to be inflamed; Wel., *pws*, that which is expelled. Or probably from the Prov. Ger., *bieze*, babbies.

BISHOPPED, confirmed—Itm in reward to my son Nicholas mayde, when the child was *bushopped*, xijd.—*L'Estrange, Household Accounts*.

BITTOUR, see *Bottle-bump*—The *botoorc* that etith the greet eel.—*Lydgate*.

The *bytter* sayd boldly that they were to blame;

The *feldfare* wolde have *fydded*, and it wolde not frame.—*Skelton*.

It, a *buttour* kyller wt ye crosbowe.—*L'Estrange Household Accounts*.

BLEFF. Noisy. Wel., *bloedd* (th), noisy, also a shout or outcry.

BOB. A smart movement, jerk, blow, or trick. Gael., *bog*, to bob, move, agitate.

BOBBERY—A disturbance, row, rumpus. O. It. *boare*, to bellow; O. Fr., *baube*, a jangler, babbler.

BODGE. To *bungle over* and *spoil a job*. Isl., *bagi*, damage, detriment, *baga*, awkward, preposterous, wrong.

If you coyne words, as Cankerburie, Canterburines, &c., whie I know a foole that shall so inkhornize you with strange phrases, that you shall blush at your own *bodges*.—*Nashe's Pap with a Hatchet*, 1589.

BOGG. Bold, forward. Isl., *bogna*; Wel., *bog*, to swell out; Gael., *bòchd*, proud, puffed out.

The thought of this should cause the jollity of thy spirit to quail, and thy *bog* and bold heart to be abashed.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

BOKE. Bulk, swelling out,—from the der. above.

BOKE—To belch.

Me thoughte of wordes that he had a full poke;

His stomak stuffed ofte tymes dyde *reboke*.—*Skelton*.

BOTTLE—How! hosteler, fetch me hors a *botell* of hay!—*Skelton*.

***BOWDER.** Suff., the side table at which the servants take their meals in gentlemen's houses. Dut. and Fl., *die booden*, the domestic servants.

BOWDS. Malt worms. May der. from the Su.-Goth., *bod*, granary.

BOYSTOUS—*Boystous* bochers at bespreynt with bloode.—*Lydgate*.

BRACK—The brightest day is not without his cloude, the finest lawne not without its *bracke*, nor the purest gold without some drosse.—*Rogers' Lost Groat*.

BRADCOCKS. Young turbot. Sw., *butta*; O. Eng., *bret*, *brut*, or *burt*; Norm., *bertonneau*. Der. probably from its shape. A. S., *bryt* and *bred*; Sw. and Dan., *bred*; Su.-Goth., *braedd*, broad. The A. S. has also *bryt*, spotted; Wel., *brith*.

BRETT, **BRETTCOCKE**, a turbot. N. Ang. *bratt*.—Itm pd to John Syff for a *brettcocke*, viijd.—*L'Estrange, Household Accounts*.

Itm in reward to the parson's servant of Burnham Debda, for bryngyng of a *brett*, ijd.—*Id*

Bret, *bretcock*, and *skulls*, comparable in taste and delicacy to the sole.—*Sir T. Browne*.

BRAIDING—But curl their locks with bodkins and with *braids*.—*Gascoigne*.
Dian rose with all her maids,
Blushing thus at love's *braids*.

—*Greene's Radagon in Dianam*.

Perhaps crafts, decelts, comments the Rev. A. Dyce. This would be the A. S., *bræd*, deceit, craft, *brædan*, to pretend.

Since Frenchmen are so *braid*,
Marry that will, I live and die a maid.

—*All's Well that Ends Well*.

BRASHY. Rushy. The O. Fr. has *brassique*, sea cole-wort, mistaken for sea bind-weed, or Scot. scurvie grass.—*Cotgr*. The root may be the Gael., *ras*, a shrub, twig; *rasach*, full of twigs; *rasan*, brushwood. *Rais*, Goth., is a rush, in Sc., a *rash*. The Ger. has *bruchig*, full of holes, boggy, marshy, brittle, fragile. Fr., *buschailles*, small twigs.

BRATTLINGS. Su.-Goth., *bräte*, *brutta*, applied to heaps of strippings from felled trees; from *bryta* (Isl., *hryta*), to break off, pluck away. (A. S., *brittan*; Eng., *brittle*) Ger., *bruchig*, fragile; L. Ger., *britte*; Fries., *brutte*, coespes (lit. the cut thing) turf, a clump of plants, etc.

BRECK—I. A fracture, a breach. A. S., *brecan*; L. Ger., *breken*; Fris., *brekke*; Isl., *breki*; Fr., *breche*. II. Also a piece of unenclosed arable land, a sheepwalk, if in grass. A. S. and Fris., *brec*, use, occupation of lands, fruit or profit from, etc.

St. Michel doth bid thee amend the marsh wall,

The *breck* and the crab-hole, the foreland and all.—*Tusser*

BRICKLE—When such delights are *brickle*, like to glass.

—*Greene's A Maiden's Dream*.

BROOK TO—

And ye may it *broke*,

Yonger than ye be,

Drinke now whyle it is new;

It shall make you loke

Yeres two or three.—*Skelton*.

BRUFF. Hearty, brisk. Su.-Goth., *bruf*, good, well; Sc., *braw*; Bret., *brad*.

BRUMP. May be from the Fr., *rompre*; Lat., *abrompere*.

BUCK—But waker lietherich, whoselively heat with rest,

Their charged *bulks* with change of meats cannot so soon digest.

—*Surrey*.

Said the chevin to the trout, My head's worth all thy *bouk*.—*Ray's Proverbs*.
BUFFLE—There was a mighty *buffle* about him, with brandy and other cordials to bring him to himself again.—*L'Estrange's Esop*.

C. Suppose any one should give you the Lie to your Face, or call you *Buffle-head*, what would you do?—*L'Estrange's Erasmus' Colloquies*.

BUFFLED. May der. like *buffled*, ante, from O. F., *buffoeur*.

***BULCHIN**, a bull calf. Lamb, *bulchin*, and pig.—*Tusser*.

So lamb-kin, a little lamb. Ger., *klein*, little.

For ten mark men sold a litille *bulchin*;

Litille less men told a *bouke* of a motoun;

Men gaf fiveten schillynges for a goose or a heen.—*Robert de Brunne*.

This passage appears in the Chronicler's account of the famine endured by the Crusaders before Acre. Hearne in his Glossary to De Brunne, explains *bulchyn* to be *bull's chine*, and *bouke* as the back or chine. The true meaning of *bulchin*, a bull calf, is given by Moor alone amongst the glossarists of the Anglian counties. The term is not in Brockett, Carr, or Forby. The word however is not local, for Nares has a number of illustrations of it.

***BINK.** A bench, series of shelves, raised sea-banks. Isl., *bingr*, a heap, hillock. BLEE. Likeness, resemblance to. Fries., *blây*, colour; Wel., *blaidd*, look, appearance.

***BRAME-BERRIES.** Blackberries or bramble-berries. Flem., *braam*, a black-berry.

***BREER.** A dyke bank. A. S., *brerd*, brim, or the Fris., *broer*, marsh, fen.

BULKING. Inflamed throbbing of the flesh. Su.-Goth., *bulga*, to swell; *bolde*, an ulcer; *bula*, a tumour.

BUMBY. A quagmire. Possibly an onomatopoea, from its quaking sucking sound, like the Romagnol *bombare*, to suck. Hence through the Romanic dialect comes *pump*, to suck up. The It. has *bomba*, a steeping in water; *bombilarc*, to lay in soak; *bombetto*, a sucking bottle,

***BUNCH,** to thump, bang. 'Dunchyn or bunchyn, tundo,' Pr. Pv. L. Ger., *bunsen*, to knock, punch; *bons*, a thump. Bret., *bunla*, to knock, to thump. BUNCH was also applied to beating hemp in Bridewell with a beetle called a dolly (*dolle*, Ger., is a dent, vide the Su.-Goth., *dolja*, and Isl., *dolgur*, a piercing or stabbing thing; Gr., *dolo* ingens contus cum ferro brevissimo, according to Varro. The L. Ger. has *tillen*, to lift, take up, move about; the Wel. *dilin*, that is acted upon, worked, or wrought, beaten, made fine. Compare with above, the O. Eng. *dolly-tub*.)

As it is said of Peter, that the ancell gave him a *bunch* on the to-side, and then his chaines fell off—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

BURR. Mist. Ger., *brodem*; Gael., *braon*.

BUSS— Herfor King Richard wrathes him and saïs,
Dight us thider ward our *busses* and galais.—*Robert de Brunne*.
A grete *busse*, and gay, full hie of saile was he.—*Id.*

BUTT. A flounder. Sw., *butta*, a turbot.

Item spent in playce, *xd*, and in butt, *vj*.—*L'Estrange Household Accounts*.

CAMPING. Mr. Spurdens, in his Supplement to Forby's Vocabulary, remarks,—'The contests were not unfrequently fatal to many of the combatants. I have heard old persons speak of a celebrated *camping*, Norfolk against Suffolk, on Diss common, with 300 on each side. Before the ball was thrown up the Norfolk men enquired tauntingly of the Suffolk men if they had brought their coffins! The Suffolk men after fourteen hours were the victors. Nine deaths were the result of the contest within a fortnight. These were called *fighting camps*, for much boxing was practised in them.' Teut., *kemp-fight*.

This fair floure of womanheed
Hath too pappys also smalle,
Bolsteryd out of lenth and breed,
Lyche a large *campyng* balle.—*Lydgale*.

CANCH. Su.-Goth., *kanl*; Gr., *kanthos*; Wel., *cant*; Ger., *kante*, edge, border, rim, limit, corner, etc. (whence a *Canton*); Ger. and Fl., *kanten*, to give an edge or slant to.

CHADS. N. Ang. Gravel, the small stones of a river bed. From the L. Ger., *kade*, a beach, says Jamieson. It., *ciotto*, any pebble stone or potsherd.

CHOAT. A merry-making. Possibly from the O. Fr. *jouant*, *jouët*, sports, pastimes.

CHOP. To flog. Prov. Ger., *kappen*, to strike, quarrel, fight.

CLBAT— Strong axle-treed cart that is clouted and shod.—*Tusser*.

CLOW. A slice of bread, cheese, etc. L. Ger., *kloue*, a slice, cut, section.

CLUNCH. Applied in E. Ang. to chalk, Ger., *tünchen*; Dan., *klunt*, a block, mass; Su.-Goth., *kluns*, massa quavis conglomerata; L. Ger., *klunte*; Prov. Ger., *klunch*.

CLUNG. *Clings* not his guts with niggish fare, to heap his chest withal.—*Surreys Ecclesiastes*, v. 18.

CLUTTER.—I have observed that if there were a crowd or a clutter in the street to which most people go to see what is the matter, they always draw off *North's Lives*, iii., 208.

COB, a sea-gull.—Many sorts of *lari*, sea-mews, and *cobs*.—*Sir T. Browne*.

*COCKBY.—A sewer. The old bricklayers or masons use the term for a drain. Wel., *soc*, a sink or drain.

COLDER. Broken ears of corn mixed with short fragments of straw beaten off by the flail. Bret., *kolo*, straw, the stalk and ear of various grains. See the Lat., *collido*.

COLLOW.—Too foulmouthed I am to *becollow* or *becollier* him with such chimney sweeping attributes of smoaking and parching.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

COOK-HEEL.—A Lenten cross-bun. It was a Norfolk custom not many years back for employers to give a breakfast to all in their employ, on Shrove Tuesday; and boys on that morning were wont to sing when going to work.

On Shrove Tuesday morning, boys, at the first meal,

I hope my master will give me a *cook-heel*;

And then up to work without any noise,

And at ~~one~~ o'clock a rare thumping *froise*.

The *cook-heel* or spiced bread (Fr., *coquille*, a fashion of a hard-crust loaf, like our Still-yard Bunne.—*Colgr.*) is a remnant of the old Romish Carnival, remarks *Mr. Spurdens*.

COOMS, COMBE. Med. Lat., *comba*, deep valley. It. dial., *conba*; Sp. Pr., *comba*, a hollow or dell; from *concava*.—*Diez*.

COPE.—Where Flemings began on me for to cry,
Master, what will you *copen* or buy?—*Lydgate*.

*CRAMATTING. The process of protecting the surface of newly formed embankments, by layers of straw pegged into the soil and stitched down by an iron chisel. Dut. and Fries., *kram*, a staple; *krammen*, to fasten with wire.

CROP-SHIN.—A headless herring; a refuse, broken one. Dan. and Sw., *krop*, the body; Dut., *krop*, stomach; *sich kropfen*, to grow amiss.

There was a herring, or there was not, for it was but a *cropshin*, one of the refuse sort of herrings.—*Nashe's Lenten Stuff*.

CRUMP. CRUMPT. Crisp, brittle, crackling, is also N. Ang. and Sc. Ger., *schrumpfen* and *krumpen*. In its sense of surly it corresponds to *grumpy*: A. S., *grom*; Dan., *grum*; Wel., *grum*; Dut., *grommen*. At page 537, the illustrations to *crumplen*, crooked, have got misplaced under this.

CRUMP. A. S., *crympig*; Ger., *krumm*; Wel., *crymn*, to bend, crook.

CULCH, SKULTCH. Rubbish composed of broken tiles, pots, and pans, shards of all kinds, laid down in the oyster beds for the oyster spat or spawn to attach itself to. See ante *culch* and *gulsh*.

Corn., *cauch*, a nasty mixture, filth; O. It., *gualercio*, dirty, nasty.

DAGGLED.—Raggid and *daggid* and cunningly cut.—*Skelton*.

DAGSWAIN.—In faythe, and he may dreame on a *daggesswane* for any fether bed.—*Skelton*

DALLOP.—Let *dallops* about, be mown and had out.—*Tusser*.

DAM. Used for a marsh. Will derive from its embanking. Su.-Goth. and Ger., *dam*. In like sense *dam* is used, Su.-Goth., for a fish-pond dug out and gained from the land.

*DELPH. A catch-water drain in the fens, Fries., *delven*, to dig; A. S., *delfan*.

*DROVE, DRIFT. An unenclosed road in the fen districts. Fries., *drown*; Walloon, *drovi*, to open, *drovi n'voie*, a road, path.

*DITHES. Dung of oxen and sheep dried and cut in slabs for fuel. Wel., *gleiad*, dried cowdung.

DRINDLE. I.—A channel. A. S. *trindelyd*, made rounded. Su.-Goth., *trind*.

II.—Slow. Wel., *trymly*, sluggish, flagging.

DUDDLE. May be a dimin. from the Su. Goth., *tudda*, conglomerate, convolvere. Sax., *tüddern*.

***DULLOR.** Loud speech. An old woman rather deaf would go to hear Parson H., for she could understand him, he made 'sich a dullor.' Wel., *dolur*; Fr., *dolour*.

DUMBLE. To muffle up. From Su.-Goth., *tumla*, to roll round and round. Isl., *tumba*.

***EYND**, or water-smoke, as it is called in Norfolk. 'A remarkable phenomenon, occurring mostly between spring and autumn, and with peculiar suddenness. All at once a damp cold mist sets in from the sea, and spreads at times many miles inland, refreshing the vegetation, but imparting a dreary aspect to the landscape. Sometimes it remains the whole day, at others not more than an hour or two, then gradually vanishes. It has a faint smoky appearance, as if entirely distinct from ordinary fog.

'I have made many enquiries concerning this curious word, *eynd*, among dwellers in Norfolk, and philologists, in the hope of learning at least how to spell it, but in vain.'—*Walter White's Eastern England*.

Isl., *oend*; Su.-Goth., *ande*; Dan., *aande*; A. S., *ond*, vapor, breathing; Sc., *aynd*.

FARRINGS. See p. 549. The immediate der. of this is obviously the Dut. and Fl., *vaaren*, to put into a fear or melancholy.

***FELON**—A sore, a whitlow. Gael., *feolan*, proud flesh, an excoriation; *fealb*, a lump in the flesh, carbuncle: from root, *feoil*, flesh.

This is the camell which suffers not the soule to goe through the needle's eye. Somewhat is the cause why the felon upon the hand swells, it is an humour which is not yet let out; if that were out, the *felnesse* would cease.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

FESS. Su.-Goth., *foss*, forward, vehement, trampling over, bursting headlong forth; from the Old Goth., *fus*.

FLAITE—To behold the sad and dead point which many of us doe and long have stood at, would *flait* any honest heart to think of.—*D. Rogers' Naaman*.

Then Phœbus gathered up his steeds, that yet for fear did run

Like flaighted fiends.—*Golding's Ovid's Metam.* b. 2.

FLASH. To clip a hedge. Dan., *fleske*, to cut, slash.

***FLATS**—A general term for small fresh-water fish.

Item in *Flathe* and *Thornbacke*, *xijd.*—*L'Estrange Household Accounts*.

FLEACHES—Botes and barges ilkin, with *flekes* make them tight.—*R. de Brunne*.

FLEET OF NETS. Is it not a *float* of nets? A. S., *feolan*, Ger. *fluten*, Sw., *flyta*.

The fishes *flete* with new repaired scale.—*Surrey*.

***FLITTER-MOUSE.** The bat, from its fluttering wavering movements. Ger., *fledermaus*. In Wessex, the *rere-mouse*. A. S., *hreran*, to flutter.

FOGGER. A huckster, small dealer in fish, poultry, game, and vegetables.

***FODDER.** Yarmouth dialect. A still smaller trader, an intermediate collector of eggs, poultry, etc., between the producer and retailer.

Of difficult etymology, from its multiplicity of meanings in various languages. *Fodder* has I.—a primary sense of to forrage, collect and distribute food. A. S., *foder*; Dut., *voeder*; Su. Goth., *foder*; Fr., *fourrer*. II.—Su. Goth., *fodra*, to solicit, dun, seek, importune, sell; Ger., *fordern*, to call for; Su. Goth., *foga*, to adapt, fit one's self to, fudge; *fog*, proprie quod sese alteri adaptat, commissura.—*Ihre*. III.—*Foder*, in the Norse and Teut. dial., has the senses of a skin, fur, covering, sheath, case, Ger., *futter*, a case, fur, fodder, forage, *futterer*, a huckster. IV.—L. Ger. and Fl., *voeder*, a carrying thing, a cart, wain, etc., hence to convey, lead, carry. V.—Su. Goth., *foga*, petty, small. Many other meanings occur, as Fl., and Dut., *vod*, a rag, *voddery*, trifles, *vodderaper*, a rag-gatherer, Dan., *vod*, a fishing net, etc. Lastly, the untenable Gael. der., *foghar*, a vagabond, robber, thief, and the Ir. *fogarach*, noisy, clamorous, proclaiming aloud.

FORLOREN. Thou hadst not spent thy travail thus, nor all thy pain *forlore*.

—*Surrey*.

FOYSON—Beware of it then, the sin it selfe is sad ; but that it should be the canker that should eat out the *foyson* of grace, and destroy all my hearings, and make my devotions as odious as the cutting off a dogge's neck.—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

FRICK. Su.-Goth., *fræck*, alacer, strenuus, tumidus, insolens.—*Thre.* Dan., *fræk*; Eng., *freakish*.

FRIMICATE. Under this are given,—I. *Frim*, tender; the Isl., *frum*, first growth. II. *Frim folk*, outlandish; the Teut. and Norse, *fremd*, from afar.

III. *Frum*; Su. Goth., *from*, *frami*, bold; Dan., *frem*, forward.
***FROLIC.** Pron. *frolluck*. A common East Anglian term for a merry-making, specially applied to aquatic gatherings on the inland broads. Ger., *fröh*, rejoiced, happy, *fröhlich*, gladsome, jovial.

GAL-KA-BAW. 'The Greeks have preserved more perfectly than the Latins the Gaelic pron. of the word for cowherd, which is bochoill; bubulcus, Lat.; boukolos, Gr. The word signifies literally, cowherd, being a compound of *bo*, cow, and *giull*, boy or young man.—*Grant on the Origin of the Gael.*, 1814, p. 165.

GAHUSEY. The sailor's and fisherman's every day over-garment, a coarsely-knitted blue worsted shirt with or without sleeves; vulg., a *jersey*. O. Fr. and Romance, *jaseran*, a coat or shirt of closely woven chain mail.—*Colgr* A cuirass, says *Roquefort*, used as far back as the 12th cent. Sp., *jacerina*; It., *ghiazzerino*. Probably der., says *Diez*, from Sp., *jazarino*, Algerian; from Ar. *al-jazair*, Algiers. *Jasque*, Romance dial., a little quilted jacket worn under the cuirass.—*Roquefort*. O. Fr., *jargot*, a coarse garment worn by country people; Languedoc, *jhergaou*, an overcoat; Dut. and Fl., *jurk*, a frock drawn over the other clothes. Hence the O. Eng., *jerkin*.

GARTLESS. Heedless. Su.-Goth., *garfwa*; A. S., *gearwian*; Isl., *giorwer*, prepared, ready.

GAST-BIRD. a. Su.-Goth., *gast*, strange, foreign.

GASTER—The word seems to have done working upon the consciences of the most, few are *gasted* by the terrors thereof.—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

GAT—She was ill-shaped and ugly, had six fingers, a *gag-tooth*, and a tumour under her chin.—*Saunders' Account of Anne Boleyn.*

GEASON. Hard to attain, once gotten, not *geason*.—*Surrey.*

GIBE. I.—To fit, suit. II.—A harvest fork. The root may be the Wel., *ci* (ch), a catcher, holdfast; *cib*, (chib) what turns round with a tendency to grapple or hold.

GIMBER. To gad about. Is most probably the Su.-Goth., *gina*, to run and get together. Gael., *sgilmeil*, given to prating; *sgeilm*, garrulous idle talk. Or it may be the O. Fr., *gimbreter*, to play the wanton.

GIMBLE. To grin or smile. It., *ghignare*; Fr., *guigner*, to wink, leer; from A. S., *ginian*, to gape, says *Diez*. O. H. G., *ginen*, or from O. H. G., *kinan*, to laugh. The A. S. has *gamenian*, to joke, be merry; *gamniende*, jesting.

GINNICK. Spruce, figged out, Essex and Suff., is a contraction of the Gaelic, *gilmeanach*, dainty, foppish; *sgeimheach*, handsome, elegant, adorned, well-dressed.

GLY-HALTER. From the Isl. and Su.-Goth., *glia*, to shine, *glo*, to see with the eyes.

GOMMACKS. Tricks, mischief, foolery. Prov. Gael., *gomag*, a nip, pinch; Gael., *guaineach*, giddy, sportive, frolicking; *goimheil*, causing annoyance, hurt, vexation. From this root *gomeril*, a fool, seems to derive, as *haveril*, also Sc., from *aifr*.

***GOWT.** A drain, sluice; pron. *gole*. O. Fr., *gouttiere*, a gutter, *égout* a drain.

GRISSENS. Stairs. From the Wel. *gris*, a step; *grisiaw*, a staircase.

GUBBINS. Scraps, fragments; seems to be the Wel., *yagubion*, sweepings.

GUG. Is der. from the O. It., *guiggia*, a whip or scourge wherewith friars discipline and whip themselves; *guiggare*, to scourge with a *guiggia*.—*Florico's Ital. Dict.*

GULL—Take heed of filling thine heart and thoughts with earthly things; the cares for earth will eat in so dangerously, and winne upon thee, as the sea tydes *gull* down the benkes.—*D. Rogers' Naaman.*

HACK. A hedge. Su.-Goth., *hæc*, an enclosure; A. S., *haca*, a hedge.
HAINISH. Unpleasant. Fr., *honteux*, and *honni* to shame, insult; Goth., *haunjan*; Ger., *höhn*, to scoff; O. Sax., *hōnda*, shame; Su.-Goth., *hän*.

***HOOVERS, HUVVERS.** Dried flags for fuel. Differing from turves in being the upper cut, with the grass, reeds, etc. A. S., *hof*, lifted; Su.-Goth., *hæfwa*, to raise up.

HOPPLE—Superstitiously *hopped* in the nets of superfluous opinions.—Henry More, on *Godliness*.

HOUNCES—The spokes were all of silver bright; the chrysolites and gems That stood upon their collars, trace, and *hounces*, in their hems Did cast a sheer and glimmering light.

—Golding's *Ovid's Metam.* b. 5.

***HUB.** The projecting nave of a wheel. Dut., *hobbelig*, knoppy, craggy.

***HUCKSTER.** A hawker. Ger., *hökern*, to higgie, sell victuals, etc., in small quantities. L. Ger., *hucker*, a forestaller, regrater, retailer. Two der. occur, I.—L. Ger., *hucke*, the back, *hucken*, to bend under a load. II.—Dut., *hoecker* *woecker*, usury, interest, Su.-Goth., and Isl, *okr*, gain, profit, A. S., *eacan*, Lat., *augere*. *Wedgewood* inclines to the latter, as does *Ihre*, under Su.-Goth., *hökare*, a retailer of salt fish.

***HUFFLES, HUFFLINS.** A rattling in the throat in breathing. 'The death *huffle*.' Walloon, *hufte*, to hiss, whizz.

***HUMMOCK.** A lump, hillock, or heap, as of straw. Su.-Goth., *hump* and *ock*; Ger., *humpel*, a heap.

HURRY-CARRIERS. Su.-Goth., *hurra*, cum impetu circum-agi, *hurra kring*. So the Lat., *erro*, *curro*, *verro*.—*Ihre's Su.-Goth. Lex.*, 1769. *Ihre* recalls to mind a passage in the *Cratylus*; the dialogue in which *Plato*, broaching his ideas on the origin of language, dwells on the remarkable manner in which certain letters appear by subtle associations of sound with sense, indissolubly connected with the vocal interpretation of the latter, in particular classes of words. The subject is full of interest. One or two of these roots of language we have noticed at pp. 552, 567, 653.

Socrates. In the first place, then, *ρ* appears to me as it were the organ of all motion, * * * a beautiful instrument for the purpose of expressing a similitude to rushing on, and hence the name founder in many places employed it for this purpose. In the first place, the words *ρεῖν* (*currere*, *fluere*, to stream, run), and *πορ* (*rivus*, a river, a rapid), imitate a rushing on by this letter; and in the next place, in the words *τρεμο* (*tremore*, to tremble, quiver), and *τραχύς* (*asper*, rough, rugged, rocky), also in such verbs as *κρούειν* (*trudere*, to strike, thrust, pierce), *θραύειν* (*frangere*, to break, shatter, shiver), *ερείκειν* (*lacerare*, to rend, bruise), *θρῖπτειν* (*friare*; to crush), *κερματίζειν* (*atterere*, to grind to atoms), and *πεμβεῖν* (*errare*, to roam, rove, roll about). In all these he made, for the most part, a resemblance to *ρ* (to a rushing on).* For he saw that *the tongue remains quiet for the least time on this letter, but is moved the most*.

Plato goes on to remark that the name-founder used *i*, most attenuated of letters, in the expression of quick movement; *l*, on which the tongue moves glibly, for slippery, sliding, oily, glib-like words; and where *g* lays hold of the tongue, sliding through *l*, he imitated glutinous, sticky, sweet, and viscous words (these in Greek have the *gl* root prefix). So *a* was used for breadth, *o* for roundness of sound. A recent translator of *Plato* ridicules these theories as fanciful, but let any incredulous reader try upon his ear with his tongue the simple words *flap*, *flip*, *flop*, and he will at once note how the entirely different mental associations which these words convey arise solely from their varied time and tone, and that these are produced entirely by the vowel sounds. Simple as is the experiment it may open to him a new world of ideas on the structure of language. Whilst the consonants supply roots, the vowels appear to give language its links of connection, its articulate framework, its intonation, accent, and vital force.

***ILLEGIBLE.** A bastard child is sometimes called an *illegible child*, corruption of illegitimate.—*Spurdens*.

* Note here how the *ρ*, falling in most instances on the first syllable, strikes as it were the key note.

- *JUMP. A petticoat. It., *giuppa*; Fr., *jupé*; Wal., *jubea*; Sp., *al-jubea*; Arabic, *al-jubbah*, a woollen petticoat.
- *KIBBLE. To walk lamely, to creep or hobble limpingly and painfully along. Common in this sense in Beds. and Cambridge. The Walloon, *kibalanse* to totter, sway, balance one's self carefully; *kibbelen*, Dut., is to nibble, strive, cavil.
- KNOP—Bunches found upon the common small thistle, running into *knops* without flower or seed.—*Sir T. Browne*.
- LOBSTER. L. Ger., *wip-steerten*, agitare caudam. *Kilian*, Dut., to fiek the tail, as a dog.
- LOKE. An enclosure, a private road; der. immediately from the Dan., *lökke*, an enclosure. The word seems also to be used in the sense of a grassy foot-path or bridle-way. This may derive from the Su.-Goth., *lök*, turf, herbage.
- LOPING—But not by such large strides as he made in getting money, and *loping* into preferments.—*North's Lives*, i., 12.
- LUBBER—Some litherly *lubber* more eateth than two.—*Tusser*.
- *LUCK. The yellow flower of the kidney vetch.
- *LUNTY, LUNT. Surly, waspish. Su.-Goth., *luna*; Isl., *lund*, mood, temper; Isl., *olund*, ill tempers.
- MARDLE. In addition to meanings already given, p. 599, has that of a jolly meeting, a drinking bout, and to indulge in such jollifications. *Maudle*, to gossip. 'Tom and I stood *maudling* by the stile.' 'Several narbors stood *maudling* together in the road, beside the jossing block.'—*Spurdens*.
- MAWMISH, under *maamble*—And the word was no sooner out, but a matter of three-and-twenty whores went to pot, but the flesh was so cursedly *mawmish* and rotten that they soon gave over the thought of that projection. —*L'Estrange's Quevedo*.
- MING. The busy bee her honey now she *ming*s.—*Surrey*.
- NUDDLING, under *nub*—He used at the Temple to be described by his hatchet face and shoulder of mutton hand, and he walked splay, stooping and *noddling*.—*North's Lives*, i. 144.
- *PERRY wind, a. Half a gale. Fris., *perre*, a slight stir; Dan., *pirre*, to stimulate, urge forward.
- PHESSE—*Yeag*, a paroxysm of anger. He went off in such a *yeag*.—*Barnes' Dorset Dialect*.
- FIGHTLE. A small narrow angular enclosure. Mr. Spurdens derives from the old law Latin phrase *picellum*, the root being the It., *piccolo*, little. *Pichel*, is given in *Ducange*, as a measure of land, occurring in *Charta Lusitan*, A.D., 1313. *Pichea*, a Norman measure of land, *bichetus* apud Burgundos.
- RACKLE. The *rakell* life, that 'longs to love's disport'.—*Surrey*.
- SAM—Anything heated for a long time in a low heat so as to be in part spoiled, is said to be *samsodden*.—*Somerset Dialect*.
- *SAPPY. Pallid, sickly. Meat when moist on the surface, in the first state of putridity, is said to be *sappy*. A person also will say, 'I fare *sappy*,' if exhausted and about to faint. Gr., *sepein*, moistness, wetness, damp, such as causes putrefaction.—*Spurdens*. A. S., *span*, to steep.
- *SHY. Wild in conduct (not in the sense of bashful). A *shy* boy, or a *shy* girl, is wanton, unsteady, amorous.—*Spurdens*. L. Ger., *scheue*, Fris. and Dut., *scheuh*, a trollop, trull, meretrix.
- *SLOB, SLAB. A puddle, wet place. Isl., *slabb*, mire, mud; Fris., *slabbe*; L. Ger., *slabben*, to leak, drip.
- *SLOSH-WAYS also SWISH. See *asosh*.
- SPONG. A calm at sea. 'Twas a perfect *spong*; not a brabble on the water.' Su.-Goth., *spang*, quod lamine simile est, like a flat plate, Isl., *spöng*, flat.
- STRINKLINGS—Men whose brains were seasoned with some *strinklings* at least of madness and phrensy.—*Henry More, on Godliness*, c. 14.
- TULY. A cat. A domestic cat is in the Welsh, *cath deulu*.
- *WANTS TO. Ought to, should do; e.g., 'That little dish *wants* to go down into the dairy.'
- *WHILE. Used for until. A Lincolnshire shibboleth.
- *YANT. A gaiter. Fr., *guante*; Su.-Goth., *wante*; Isl., *vante*; Dut., *want*, mittens, gloves.

AN analysis of the East Anglian dialect into its constituent ingredients, Keltic, Norse, Teutonic, and Romance, yields results of considerable interest.

No part of his etymological exploration has more rewarded the writer than the unexpectedly large stratum of Keltic brought to light in the East Anglian dialect, much of it singularly pure, unmixed and undefaced phonetically by the wear and tear of twenty centuries of utterance. It would be hard to find elsewhere stronger confirmation of the claim put forward for spoken dialect that it is naturally more conservative than written language, in spite of the enormous advantage of stereotyping itself possessed by its rival.

An examination of this stratum reveals the presence of those characteristics pointed out ten years ago by the Rev. John Davies in his paper on the Races and Dialects of Lancashire, published in the Transactions of the Philological Society for 1855, the love of fun, frolic and turbulence of the Kelt, whilst the absence of words connected with law, government, or the luxuries of life, and the presence of a class of words to be looked for exclusively in the mouths of field labourers, afford evidence that the Kelto-Briton in East Anglia exchanged a condition of very primitive civilization for one of dependence on a more powerful race. Amongst noticeable dialectic words illustrative of temperament in East Anglia, of Keltic origin, the following may be cited:—

KYMRIC.—*Antrums, balderdash, bawda, bleff, bogg, clutter, dullor, gag, hoddy, pash, rile, wap, yaffle.* GAELIC.—*Bossoch, botty, brash, frawsy, galder, gimmick, gommacks, haferen, nushed, pawk, rackle.*

Keltic words expressive of personal defects,—*breeder, bruckled, bumble-footed, freckens, nunty, jollacks, lurried, felon.*

Of several of these Gaelic words, there is reason to believe that their introduction into East Anglia is comparatively modern. The seafaring intercourse maintained along the coast has probably led to their importation. They are solely colloquial, and not to be found in any East Anglian author.

There is, perhaps, no more interesting class of Keltic words than the names given to the animal creation. Amongst others specially noticeable in East Anglia are, *chovy, mavis, natter-jack, nazzle, nobby, puckets. bun, caddaw, miller.*

Although the nomenclature of agricultural implements proves the superior and more systematic culture of the Teutonic tribes, who colonised Britain, a class of Keltic words occur. Beside the Keltic *car, dray, wain*, there is their *trolly, croulters* (page 604), *fore-summers*, and the Gaelic *jim* and *jill*. Words employed on the farm are, *bottle of hay, gavel, lust, pane, fapes, prey, rafflin-pole, rawings, tallett, carr, crome, darnocks, felt, grindle, million, moyse, mudgin, mulch, par yard, yofers.*

Amongst household words occur, *burgad, bosky, barth, grissens, noggin, rally, bail, cosh, stull, buss, cuddle, diddy, froise, gofers, culch, kiner, wrastle, sybbrit*.

The fishing vocabulary of the East Coast seems to have borrowed from the Keltic, *gubbins, lobster* (a young sole), *mease, swill, and kit*.

Many more words might be added to this list, a number of these we have placed under Norse and Teutonic heads. They are to be found also in those languages as well as in the Keltic, and in East Anglia have been probably more immediately derived from them. The Keltic and Gothic are stocks of the same great Indo-European family, and have numerous words in common of which it would be difficult for either to prove an immediate paternity. See *pash, mudgin, mulch, rile, gavel, muggy*. The existence of many such words in Gaelic and Icelandic is noticeable in an examination of the glossaries of the two languages. A further quantity of Keltic words will be found cited later on amongst the borrowings of this coast from the Old French.

In the East Anglian dialect the Scandinavian words form a class of large and of strongly marked individuality of character.

From the hardy adventurous Norseman, it derives mainly its vocabulary of sea and fishing terms. And first may be cited those hardly ever out of a seaman's mind or mouth for many minutes together, expressive of the weather, as *dingy, drouched, huffish, daggy, bangy, hefty, muggy, roky, rickled, sannyking, rafty, and spong* (p. 698), *rack, eynd, perry*. Next, those applied to shipping,—*buss, keel, lum, rooms, orruck holes, rusns*; to the coast objects of East Anglia, *binks, meals, marrams, gats, scores, tangle*. Lastly, its fishing dialect,—*bloaters, bradcocks, butts, tongues, and thokes, the fry* which precedes the herring faring, the *masks* in which the fish are strangled, the *scudding* which shakes them into the *buss's* hold, the *rivers, roarers and towers* who cure the fish, the *loves* on which they dry, the *hasks* in which they are packed, and *rooker* or refuse fish. Lobsters are captured by *trunking*, and in the whale fishery occurs the term *try*.*

The vocabulary employed in the marsh drainage of the East coast has borrowed from the Norse the words *didall, fay, junker, scoppet, and tommy*.

Special and peculiar classes of words of Scandinavian origin appear under *f, gl, sl, and l*. The three first are noticed, pp. 552 567, 653. Under *l* occurs a *lazy* class of words, *lusk, loll, limpsey, langle, lall, laldrum*. Many Norse words fall also under *sc, sh, st, sw*. Among words used in farm life are *bigg, clutch, gofe, rove, balk, bing, wad, flash, wips and straes, whip the cat*.

* An examination of the Glossary will shew how many fishing and seafaring words are common to both the Whitby and East Anglian coast.

The most striking words, however, which East Anglia has borrowed from the Norseman are those which reveal his fierce, rough, boisterous, overbearing nature; his hard and somewhat narrow intellect. From that quarter have come few or no terms expressive of the workings of the mind, of refinement, or of feminine grace and culture, but from his inexhaustible and resonant definitions of brute force, derive the following, selected from many more,—*bullock, delk, droze, dunt, lam, lunt, mell, rackle, ramp, ricky, rile, rogge, rommock, straft, stram, swacker, swap, thwack, yipper, gibbet, rumbustical, rungumshus, threup, bask, dunsh, harriage, horse-ma-gog, lumpe, pash, peg-trantum, purdy.*

The Teutonic element in the East Anglian dialect is probably the most copious, and abounds in every class of words employed in rustic life, specially the outdoor operations of the farm and the details of indoor domestic economy. Beyond these it would be difficult to single out as peculiar any marked feature in its vocabulary, but the number of words immediately derived from the Low German, Dutch, and Frisic is noticeable.

From the Dutch, the naval instructors in many things of our East coast fishermen, come the sea-faring terms, *brabble, dabby, luff, lubber, swabber, rack, woulders*, and the fishery words, *corf, coy, kiplins, scud, waver, went*. From the Dutch and Frisic the draining and embanking phrases have also been borrowed, of *breck, crammatting, delph, gull, splash, scradge, and stow*.

Amongst Anglo-Saxon words in common use, a few out of many may be given as samples;—*addle, allens, beath, becket, beetle, bred, cavings, claggy, clamm, clamp, clevers, chung*, (in words of sticky adhesive expression, the root prefix *cl* notably predominates) *eddish, ether, exe, gear, hards, hills, latch, belking, boke, brook, dare, dop, geason, drovy, dwain, barrow pig, beezlins, bigge, fare, grett, gryne, amper, etc.*

For many ages after the Norman Conquest, East Anglia was the main highway of commerce and foreign travel, and hence many words crossed over from the neighbouring shores—Flemish, Walloon, Norman, Breton, French, and Italian. In the 16th century the number of these would be recruited by the Protestant exiles of the Low Countries in the Elizabethan age, and in the 17th by the Huguenots fleeing from the dragonades of Louis XIV., large settlements of both establishing themselves in the heart of East Anglia. Lying nearest the European centre, and in constant communication with its chief ports, no part of England was exposed in the same degree to foreign influence, and the result has been that no other English dialect has the same composite character, or contains the same variety of foreign ingredients in such ample proportions.

The latest of these to invade East Anglia was the French. The introduction into East Anglia of the Romance element was coincident with the appearance of the first germs of English literature. It prevailed throughout its blossoming spring-tide, and it is noticeable how much of it has entered into the writings of East Anglian authors. This may be seen in the quotations from them appended to the words as they occur in the Glossary. Many etymologies of the dialect and archaic speech of a nation can be met with only in the ancient dialect of its neighbours, and numerous originals of East Anglian words have been found in the old French and Italian Dictionaries of *Palsgrave*, *Cotgrave*, and *Florio*, in words which no longer find place in the modern vocabularies of those languages. Generally, the words derived from the Romance languages are found to have undergone more phonetic corruption than those inherited from the Norse and Teutonic, with which the Anglian speech has naturally the closest dialectic affinity. Noticeable examples of this corruption are, *bever*, *bulwer*, *cabobble*, *chate*, *copper rose*, *couch-handed*, *crouce*, *gahusey*, *ladle*, *streely*.

Amongst the words imported from the Old French are a number of Keltic ones derived from the common primitive original of the speech of Gaul and Briton,—the Kymric. The writer has taken no special pains to glean these from the pages of the glossary, but the following occur to him, *pax-wax*, *robble*, *tewell*, *baven*, *mardle*, *mawbled*, *jibby*, *mudgen*, *molt*, *par-yard*.

In the vocabulary of East Anglian dialectic words employed in agricultural life, amongst others of French origin are *foisin*, *duffin*, *house*, *page*, *jacks*, *jahney*, *haye*, *muse*, *logger*, *rackling*, *rab*, *ranter*, *jower*, *jug*, *joss*, *jounce*, *jiece*, *lashy*, *leasty*, *render*, *spurge*, *stover*, *travis*, *toshy*, *podge*, *gowt*. Whilst *londes*, *marrishes*, *manna*, *chizzly*, express conditions of margin common to both coast lines.

The French, like all other Keltic dialects, is rich in personal epithet, and has supplied East Anglia with *baffled*, *jibby*, *ladle*, *trunch-made*, *streely*, *roynish*, *nisy*, *lurdan*. Amongst more miscellaneous yet expressive words derived from it occur *bunny*, *clicket*, *clodger*, *crible*, *bambl*, *daggled*, *daunt*, *deving*, *dibles*, *frawt*, *hutch*, *jatter*, *jet*, *jetty*, *jib*, *jot*, *lestly*, *mush*, *noisel*, *pense*, *pitter*, *plenny*, *pottens*, *ree*, *rasp*, *stale*, *tappis*, *tatter*, *tifle*, *worrell*.

From the Breton derive *bunt*, *culver-headed*, *strinkle*; from the Walloon, *make*, *mardle*, *huffles*, *kibbling*; from the Latin, *collogue*, *conkers*, *coast*, *nittle*, *quont*, *vessel*; from the Italian, *barrator*, *bezzle*, *bumbly*, *busk*, *bombage*, *creek*, *frail*, *gotch*, *gug*, *launch*, *ranch*, *ruffatory*, *strammell*, and *traffing-dish*.

Of East Anglian dialectic words which seem common to many languages, *dockey*, *haze*, *lagarag*, *muggy*, *mulch*, *muldery*, *pash*, *pilger*, *pulk*, *polt*, *prog*, *razor*, *sharming*, and *towell*, may be cited from a number which occur in the glossary.

Several conclusions forced upon the writer in the course of exploring the etymologies of the East Anglian dialect may be noted here.

The existence at the present day of a residuum, larger than is generally supposed, of the primitive stratum of language common to the Indo-European races, running through all with phonetic modifications, and composed of those colloquial words which embody in their vocabulary the conditions of a rude and elementary civilisation.

The writer feels constrained to modify the remarks at pp. 453 and 458, on the existence of active and innate impulsive tendencies in man to coin and multiply words, so far as any absence of overruling and controlling influences are there implied. Nothing in his task of etymologising has occasioned him more surprise than the discovery that every word in the East Anglian dialect, however uncouth, however much it partakes of what more than aught else would seem to prompt invention, - personal epithet, is of old descent, deriving from ancient Keltic and Gothic originals. Divine in its origin, human speech would seem to have been left to no accident or caprice in its development, but to have contained within itself the germs of an organic growth, its bounds prescribed and ordered by laws which, whilst affording the fullest scope to the exercise of human intelligence, are yet as immutable and free from aberration as those which regulate the planets in their orbits; laws which, hidden from finite reason, preserve the world of mind as of matter from falling into chaos. Languages may degenerate and decay, and words may be replaced by new outgrowths, but these will be from the old roots lying deep down in man's inner consciousness, and of indestructible vitality.

The East Anglian, North Anglian, and Scottish dialects appear to form one common Anglian tongue, modified by the local influences they have encountered. How it arises that the language of Burns and Scott is but an English dialect may be briefly told. At the conquest, the Wessex or West Saxon dialect, the language of the Anglo-Saxon court and literature, suffered most by the Norman irruption. Expelled the court it sank to the level of the Anglian and other dialects, and out of the strife for supremacy between these, the English language was gradually evolved, formed out of all and shewing influences derived from all; the North Anglian supplanting a number of the Wessex grammatical forms, whilst its triumph over its pronunciation was still more signal. Contemporaneously, the language of Scotland was being revolutionized. From Suffolk northwards to Aberdeen the eastern shores of Great Britain had been early colonised by Norwegian,

Danish* and Angle settlers, whilst the heart of the country remained Keltic. The northern region and islands formed part of the Scandinavian kingdom. The Gaels held the western highlands, the Kymric Picts the lowlands. But with Malcolm Canmore, King of Scotland, brought up in England, and married to the Conqueror's daughter, a great change commenced. Queen Matilda came attended by an English retinue; many Saxons expelled from their estates, withdrew from their Norman oppressors into Scotland and settled there. In the lately published volumes of his *History of England and Normandy*, Sir Francis Palgrave has described the process by which the Teutonic element in Scotland finally triumphed over the Keltic, and how, like the Russian Emperors of our day, the Keltic kings Teutonised their court, and their nobles came to learn the fashionable speech. In William the Second's reign Malcolm ravaged Northumbria, carrying back great numbers of English people. The chroniclers of that age describe lowland Scotland as filled with common people of English extraction, and Malcolm's son and his successors in their charters address themselves to their subjects,—‘Scottis et Anglis.’† In

* The North Anglian supplanted the West Saxon form of ‘to be,’ which was *wesan*. It supplanted by ‘we are, ye are, they are,’ the plurals which in Wessex were *syndon*. Its *am* replaced the Wessex *eom*. North Anglian early cut off *a* from the plurals of nouns, as brothers for brethren; and the *th* from the inflections of verbs, as loves for loveth.

The living Northumbrian dialects, which include also North Yorkshire and the Lake and Lonsdale districts, have recently been examined and their very strong Scandinavian character brought out. In place of our pronoun *the*, which is the Old Frisic *thi*, *thin*, *thet*, answering to the German *der*, *die*, *das*, and corrupted in the South of England dialects to *th*, they use the Scandinavian *et*, Old Norse *hit*, abbreviated to ‘t. In a collection of fourteen spoken Northern dialects, it was found that eight gave ‘t for *the* in the line—

‘I am the rose of Sharon, and the lily of the valleys.’

rendered thus,—

‘I’s ‘t rooaz o’ Sharon, an’ ‘t lily o’ ‘t valleys.’

In Norse usage the pronoun *et* is placed at the end of words. Thus in Swedish, ‘Att gifva et barn et bröst,’ becomes in Northumbrian, ‘At give ‘t barn ‘t brest.’ The Anglo Saxon settlers, whilst adopting from the Northmen the Scandinavian article, placed it where they did their own,—at the beginning of the word.

The preposition *i* is used for *in*. This is pure Norse, used in Icelandic, Swedish and Danish, at the present day. Out of the fourteen North country dialects cited above, twelve were found using the *i*, all other parts of England using the Low German *in*.

Another peculiarity is the use of *at* for *that*; e.g., at art, for that art. This again is Scandinavian. In the Lake and Lonsdale district *at see*, *at gang*, are common forms for to see, to go. *Gang*, to go; O. Norse, *ganga*; *gar*, to make, O. N. *giora*.

The Northumbrian and Scotch have *fra*, from, *at*, to, *till*, to, prepositions of Norse origin. *Wel*, very, is the Isl. *vel*. *Sic*, the Scotch contraction of the Border *slike*, is the Isl. *slik*, such, the like; A S., *swilk*. The Danish particle *sum* is used for *as*, ‘sum we forgive our debtors.’ *War*, the Dan. *var*, is used

† See an article on the Anglo-Scottish dialect in the North British Review, 1865.

later times the Southern English triumphed over the Northern. Our great early English writers were chiefly southerners. To this and to the successive infusions of the Romance dialect into our language, to its Latinization during the last three centuries, to the rounding off its spelling, bringing it more in accordance with French and Italian, and further from the Teutonic and Norse, the gradual decay of the North Anglian pronunciation which once so widely prevailed may be attributed. Other causes which aided are noted at page 498.

A reader of the thirteenth century Anglian Chronicle of Robert de Brunne, of Sixhill, Lincolnshire, and of that by John Capgrave, of Lynn, a century and a half later, encounters a host of words commonly regarded as peculiar to Scotland and its border, such as *amang*, *aughtend*, *bailie*, *bakkis*, *ben*, *bigged*, *blithe*, *brent*, *busk*, *forby*, *frayed*, *other gates*, *gart*, *glede*, *graith*, *greet*, *halden*, *ilh*, *intille*, *ken*, *kirke*, *leale*, *ligge*, *mirk*, *mickle*, *eftsoons*, *pikit*, *pundes*, *reave*, *siker*, *smert*, *sottis*, *speer'd*, *spedis*, *swilk*, *sind*, *suld*, *teld*, *thretty*, *thrid*, *tyned*, *wakand*, *whilk*, *wis*, etc.*

Hitherto, in despite of its title, the language of the '*Norfolk Reeve's Tale*,' of Chaucer, has been generally assigned to the dialect of Craven. We venture to assert that a reader of it in the currently accepted text, by Tyrwhitt, will find its archaisms rendered more intelligible by the present glossary than by the North Anglian ones of Carr, Brockett, and Jamieson, although the poet with his marvellous creative genius for lifelike personation has placed several words peculiarly North Anglian in the mouths of the two north country scholars. Scattered over the pages of Chaucer occur expressions which his editors, ignorant of their true dialectic significance, have strangely misinterpreted; *e. g.*, *trip*, *kichel*, etc.

The chief dialectic departure at the present day of East Anglian from North Anglian is in its pronunciation. It has neither its *for was*; and *war*, the Dan. *vaerre*, for worse. Nothing, perhaps, sounds to us more barbarous than the North Yorkshire, I is, thou is, he is. It is, however the living Danish form.

The proportions of dialectic words differing from ordinary English in some of the Northumbrian dialects is about two of Low German to three of Scandinavian. See Peacock on the *Leading Characteristics of Northumbrian*.—*Phil. Soc. Transactions*, 1862-3.

* Our ancestors in Queen Elizabeth's days spoke pretty much as the Scottish peasantry do now. We find Lord Burleigh writing *whan* for when, *war* for were, *twai* for two. Sir Thomas More's widow writes to Secretary Cromwell beseeching "his especial gude maistership, out of his abundant gudeness, to consider her case." Spenser, in his *Shepherd's Kalendar*, says of an ewe, "It mought ne gang on the greene," makes Thenot ask, "What gars thee greets?" and uses Scotticisms, such as *mickle*, *wark*, *ken*, *warr*, *hame*, *teen*. Shakspeare uses comparatively few northern words, yet Scotsmen remark that much of the language which the commentators explain to English readers is perfectly intelligible to them. See, for further illustrations, a paper in *Chambers' Book of Days*, vol. i.

hardness nor its distinctness, but appears to occupy a somewhat similar position in relation to the North Anglian which Low German bears to High. High German and Low German are sometimes termed so linguistically with relation to the comparative height above the level of the sea of the races who speak them. We have already noticed the powerful modifying influences of climate upon speech (pp. 491-2). Whilst the dwellers in high mountain regions affect clear decisive vowels and hard consonants, their lowland neighbours incline to gutturals, soft vowels, and smooth consonantal sounds.*

Printed illustrations of the East Anglian dialect are rare. From a scarce little volume, called '*Erratics*,' by a Sailor, written by the Rev. Joshua Larwood, 12mo., 1800, the following dialogue is transferred. It is, however, a very coarse example, much broader and harsher in its pronunciation than is commonly met with.

DIALOGUE.

ORIGINAL VULGAR
NORFOLK.

Narbor Rabbin and Narbor Tibby.

Rabbin.

Tibby, d'ye know how the knacker's mawther Nutty du?

Tibby.

Why i' facks, Rabbin, she is nation cothy; by Goms, she is so snasty that I think she is will-led.

Rabbin.

She's a fate mawther, but ollas in dibles wi' the knacker and thackster; she is ollas a ating o' thapes and dod-mans. The fogger sa she ha the black sap; but the grosher sa she have an ill dent.

Tibby.

Why ah! tother da she fared stounded: she pluck'd the pur from the back stock, and copped it agin the balk of the douw pollar and barn't it; and then she hulled at the thackster, and hart his weeson and huckle-bone.

* The East Anglian interchange of *v* and *w*, and the elision of the aspirate in *th*, instanced in pages 504 and 669 seem curiously enough to be also old Scottish peculiarities. *Dean Ramsay* in his *Scottish Reminiscences* has a note upon the subject.—'In Galloway, which lies in South West Scotland an ejected Episcopalian Minister made in 1684 some notes on the peculiarities of the speech of that district. The country people, he remarks, specially those of the elder sort, do very often omit the letter *h* after *t*; as ting for thing, tree for three, tatch for thatch, wit for with, and also oftentimes pronounce *w* for *v*, as serwant for servant.

TRANSLATION.

Neighbour Robin and Neighbour Stephen.

Robin.

Stephen, do you know how the collar maker's daughter Ursula does?

Stephen.

Why in fact, Robin, she is extremely sick: by (*obsolete*) she is so snarlish, that I think she's out of her mind.

Robin.

She is a clever girl, but always in troubles with the collar-maker and the thatcher. She is always eating gooseberries and snails. The man at the chandler's shop says she has a consumption; but the grocer says she is out of her senses.

Stephen.

Why aye, the other day she appeared struck mad; she snatched the poker from the back of the stove, and flung it against the beam of the pigeon-house and burnt it; and then she throwed it at the thatcher, and hurt his throat and

There was northing but kadders in the douw-poller, and no douws; and so, arter she had barnt the balk, and the door-stall, and the plancher, she run into the par-yard, thru the pytle, and then swounded behiinn'd a sight o' gotches o' beergood.

Rabbin.

Ah, the shummaker told me o' that rum rig; and his nevey sa that the beergood was fystey, and that Nutty was so swelter'd that she ha got a pain in spade-bones and jott. The thacker wou'd ha gin har some doctor's geer in a beaker; but he sa she'll niver moize agin.

Tibby.

I met the knacker gollopping over the cansy upon his dicky; he fared mortal kidge; he swopped the dicky for a hobby, and bought a sort o' lan-yards, and a hape o' whit leather, and a gotch o' beestlings. As he had swopped the dicky at the far, he did'nt want his spores; so he swopped the spores for a crupper, and a crome-stick, and a par o' hakes.

Rabbin.

Ah, there was a nation rumpuss. He played at ten pins, and bone i' the hole, and trunket, and copped the loggets, and he won a sort o' dings, and draw-waters, and bloodolphins, and spinks.

Tibby.

In loping over, though he is lythy, jest by the brig, his crome-stick fell swop into the deek-holl; and he was fain to clamber over the deek, thru all the muck and dat; and he was nigh toppling over the brig-rail, which was spolt.

Rabbin.

The mawther sa he fared quite sapy; the thackster led him toward the house; but as she could not unsnack her half hack, they crid him under the crib among a hape o' kidlungs, that wur dade, and laid forth in the stra, that the throsher had hull'd down from the gofe in the beam. The throsher copp'd more stra down, and crid it under the skipping block for a bad for the nazzel, the bunny, and the tuley.

hip-bone. There were no pigeons in the pigeon-house, and nothing but jack-claws; and so, arter she had burned the beam, and the door-frame, and the floor, she ran into the cow-yard, through the small field, and fainted behind several pitchers of yeast.

Robin.

Aye, the shoemaker told me of that comical trick; and his nephew says that the yeast was musty; and that Ursula sinothered; that she has got a pain in her blade-bones and bottom. The thatcher would have given her some doctor's medicine in a tumbler; but he says she never will recover.

Stephen.

I met the collar-maker galloping over the causeway on his ass; he seemed very brisk; he exchanged the ass for a poney, and bought several whip-thongs and a quantity of white leather, and a pitcher of milk.—As he had the ass at the fair, he did not want his spurs; so he exchanged the spurs for a crupper, and a crook-stick, and a pair of pothooks.

Robin.

Aye, there was a great disturbance. He played at nine pins, and trap-ball, and (trunket), and tossed the (loggets); and he won a quantity of farthings, and goldfinches, and bullfinches, and chaffinches.

Stephen.

In striding over, although he is supple, just by the bridge, his crook-stick fell directly into the dyke; and he was forced to climb over the dyke, through all the dung and dirt; and he was near falling over the rail of the bridge, which was brittle.

Robin.

The girl says he seemed quite exhausted; the thatcher led him towards the house; but as she could not unlatch her . . . they pushed him under the manger among a heap of dead kittens, that were laid out in the straw which the throsher had flung from the corn-heap in the barn. The throsher threw more straw down, and pushed it under the horsing-block, for a bed for the young ass, the rabbit, and the cat.

Tibby.

Ah, but the wast is, that the mawther got a great long tharm in her hand; and tur bolted, and tur bulk'd, and tur barst out all over twiddles, and twey quite sheer like a breeder; and tur swelled up as big as a skizzy, or a casting-top, or a swelping-top.

Rabbin.

Well, I'll go to the fogger's, and hear how the mawther du; for twas muggy, and tur snew, and tur thew, and tur blew, and there was a nation roke when she was craning out o' the windon under the chimley.

Stephen.

Aye, but the worst is, that the wench got a great long thorn in her hand; and it beat, and it throbb'd, and it broke out all over pimples; and it was quite enflamed, like a whitlow; and it swelled up as big as a large marble, or a spinning-top, or a whipping-top

Robin.

Well, I will go to the man at the chandler's shop, and hear how the girl does: for it was foggy, and it snowed, and thawed, and blowed, and there was a haze when she was stretching out of the window under the chimney.

Recently a version of the *Song of Solomon*, in the Norfolk Dialect has been made by the *Rev. Edward Gillett, Vicar of Runham*, for the English dialectic collections of Prince Louis Bonaparte. From this we extract a specimen.

CHAPTER VI.

WHAT way-wards is yar beloved gorn. O yow feerest amunst women?
What way-wards is yar beloved tarned a one side, that we may sarch arter 'im wi' ye?

2 My beloved, he is gorn down into 's yard, to the beds o' spices, and to feed in the yards, and to gather lilies.

3 I em my beloved's, and my beloved he is mine; he du feed amunst the lilies.

4 Yow air bootiful, O my love, as Tirzah, tidy as J'rusal'm, frightful as a army wi' banders.

5 Tarn awah yar eyes from off o' me, for they ha' bate me: yar hear is as a flock o' goats as appear from Gilead.

6 Yar teeth air as a flock o' ship agoin' up from woishin', and every one on 'em bear tweens, and there a'n't norn gast amunst 'em.

7 Liken onto a bit o' pomegranate air yar tameples wuthin yar locks.

8 There be treescore queens, and fourscore concubines, and an onendless number o' maidens.

9 My dow, my ondefiled, is but one; she's the solitary one of her mother: she's the chice un o' her as had her.

10 Who's she as star out as the mornin', feer as the mune, shear as the sun, and frightful as an army wi' banders?

11 I went down into the nutsherd to look over the fruits o' the walley, to see wuther the wine-trees moised, and the pomegranates blowed.

12 Afore I was awores on't, my sowl made me liken onto the charrets of Ammi-nadib.

13 Tarn back! tarn back! O Shulamite! tarn back! tarn back! that we may look apun ye! What will ye see in the Shulamite? Suffin liken to the company o' tew armies.

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ABBREVIATIONS.

A. S.	Anglo-Saxon.	L. Ger.	Low German or Platt Deutsch.
Ar.	Arabic.	Med. Lat.	Mediæval Latin.
C. Brit.	Cambro-British.	O. Fr.	Old French.
C. Bret.	Celto-Breton.	O. H. G.	Old High German.
Cotgr.	Cotgrave's Fr.-Eng. Dict.	O. N.	Old Norse.
Fl.	Flemish.	Palsg.	Palsgrave's Fr.-Eng. Dict.
Fr.	French.	Per.	Persian.
Fris.	Frisic.	Pl. Dut.	Platt Deutsch.
Fries.	Friesic.	P.	Portuguese.
Gael.	Gaelic.	Pr. C.	Pricke of Conscience.
Gr.	Greek.	Pr. Pv.	Promptorium Parvulorum.
Ger.	German.	Prov.	Prowencal.
Id.	Idem.	Sc.	Scotch.
Ir.	Irish.	Sp.	Spanish.
Isl.	Icelandic.	Sw.	Swedish.
It.	Italian.	U. S.	United States.
Lang.	Languedoc.	Wal.	Walloon.
Lin.	Linnaeus.	Wel.	Welsh.

APPENDIX.

THE extent of this volume, as originally planned, has been so considerably exceeded, as to necessitate the cutting down of the notes in this Appendix, and the omission of many articles reserved for its pages.

Nashe's Lenten Stuff, page 13.—The reader is referred to the reprint of this scarce work in the Harleian Miscellany. A list of his writings appears in Lowndes's Bibliography, lately reprinted. See also D'Israeli's Quarrels of Authors. Craik, in his English Literature and Language, pronounces Nashe to have been "the most brilliant pamphleteer of his age. His satire was of a much higher order than his dramatic talent. There never, perhaps, was poured forth such a rushing and roaring torrent of wit, ridicule, and invective, as in the rapid succession of pamphlets, which he published in the year 1589, against the knot of Puritan writings under the name of Martin Mar-Prelate." See pp. 467-8.

Taylor and Robberds' Controversy, page 14.—Want of space precludes the analysis of the above, promised in the text. The reader is referred to Robberds' Geological and Historical Observations on the Eastern Valleys of Norfolk, 1826, and R. C. Taylor's Geology of East Norfolk, 1827.

Criminal Records of Yarmouth, page 22.—See Mr. Harrod's Paper in *Norfolk Archaeology*, vol. 4. The first trial for piracy in Yarmouth Admiralty Court appears in Manship's History of Great Yarmouth, pp. 61, 62. See also Swindon, pp. 739.

Litester and Kett Insurrections, page 29.—The fullest notice of the former appears in Blomefield's History of Norfolk. A History of Kett's Rebellion in Norfolk has lately been published by the Rev. F. W. Russell, 4to., 1859. It is founded on the rare contemporary narratives, and on documents in the State Paper and Record Offices. In Froude's History of England is a picturesquely written chapter of the incidents of this rising, and of the causes which led to it.

Art Treasures of Yarmouth, page 38.—Among the principal pictures in Yarmouth a few years ago, were, Rubens' Judgment of Paris, for which George IV. is said to have offered 5000 guineas; and two family portraits of remarkable excellence by Rembrandt—whole lengths of the Rev. Mr. Elison, minister of the English Church, at Amsterdam, and his wife. They descended by marriage to the Colbys, a family of Yarmouth, and were for a number of years at the residence of Mr. Dovor Colby, 34 and 35, South Quay. Mr. Dawson Turner relates that in 1806 he was commissioned by a London picture dealer to offer £2800 for the pair. Similar offers were made from time to time. A few years since they were sold by auction by Messrs. Christie and Manson.

Mr. Dawson Turner had a collection of pictures, etchings of which, by members of his family, were issued for private circulation. The Gallery was sold in London in 1852; among the most noticeable lots were Titian's Rape of Europa, £288 15s.; Bellini's Virgin with the Infant on her knee, attended by saints, 360 guineas; and a fine Hobbema Landscape, £252. Of this last a disparaging critic remarked that old Crome had painted all over it, and its value would best be ascertained after Mr. Farrar had stripped the Norwich crape from off it. Whoever bought it, it was not a bad investment. It passed into the Scarisbrick collection and was resold in the same auction room, in May, 1861, for 440 guineas. On July 6, 1863, it was again knocked down by the same firm to a Paris dealer for £420.

The chief portion of Mr. Dawson Turner's fine Library was sold in London in 1852, occupying thirteen days and realizing £4562. It was rich in archaeology, bibliography, missals, and in books with added private plates and autograph letters from the authors. His unusually fine Manuscript Library, including more than 40,000 autograph letters, was dispersed in 1859. The five days' sale realised £6558 8s. Among its rarities may be specified the Charles I., Rupert and Fairfax Correspondence, £370; De Foe's Compleat Gentleman, in autograph, £69; Downing's (Dutch Ambassador, *temp.* Charles II.) Correspondence, £87; Glastonbury Abbey Chartulary, £141 15s.; the Lauderdale Correspondence, £115; Napoleon State Papers, £215; thirteen Letters of Sir Isaac Newton, £93 9s.; Original Letters of Sovereigns and other illustrious Personages, relating to Scottish History, £280; Vertue's M.S. Collections on the Fine Arts, £45; Walpole's Pocket Account Book, £20; Wilkes' Letters, &c., connected with the North Briton Prosecution, £29; eighty-five Letters from illustrious Frenchmen, £70; Receipts of Milton and his Wife for payments on account of Paradise Lost, £43 1s.; Theatrical Autographs, 1740—1829, 1 vol., £85; Autograph Letters, first series, 2 vols., £23; second, 6 vols., £41; third, 6 vols., £71; fourth, 12 vols., £165; fifth, 52 vols., £505; sixth, 26 vols., £240; Blomefield's Norfolk, £460; Oxfordshire, £200; Northamptonshire, £70.

Herbert de Losinga, page 63.—There is a lengthy passage on this prelate in William of Malmesbury. The Caxton Society issued at Brussels, in 1846, a collection of Losinga's letters, edited by Robert Anstruther. A paper upon this last has appeared in the Norfolk Archæological Society's Papers.

Dimensions of St. Nicholas' Church, Yarmouth, page 73.—In the *Times* of December 18, 1864, appeared a letter from Mr. E. B. Denison, giving the measurements of the Cathedrals and great Parish Churches. Amongst these latter St. Nicholas takes the lead, its extent of area being 23,085 feet; St. Michael's, Coventry, coming next with 22,080 feet, St. David's, Romsey, Southwell, Boston, and Newcastle, following. The width of St. Nicholas, 110 feet, exceeds that of any English cathedral, York, the widest, being 106 feet.

Cooper Family, page 76.—In Bransby Cooper's life of his uncle, Sir Astley Paston Cooper, some interesting notices occur of the parents of the great surgeon. Some amusing anecdotes are also given of the pranks for which, and for his overflowing animal spirits, Sir Astley was best remembered by his Yarmouth contemporaries.

Mis-conduct of the Clergy, page 84.—See Swindon's Great Yarmouth, pp. 799, 801-4. Also the Camden's Society's volume on the Suppression of the Monasteries, Tyrell's Letter to Cromwell, reporting the Vicar of Mendylsham.

Persecution of the Rev. Mr. Brookes, page 87.—"Miles Corbet, the Recorder of Yarmouth, who indicted a man for a conjurer, and was urgent upon the jury to condemn the party upon no proof but a book of circles found in his study, which Miles said was a book of conjuring, had not a learned clergyman told the jury that the book was an old almanack. I have been present at a committee for religion, consisting of five or six tradesmen and merchants of London, and an ignorant lawyer in the chair; yet these have judged doctrines by wholesale, executing ecclesiastical jurisdiction in a high act, * * * At this worshipful (nay, honourable bar), was a heavy complaint against a grave divine (*Mr. Brookes of Yarmouth*) of blasphemy, which he had preached, viz.: *That the Virgin Mary was the Mother of God*, and at a day appointed for voting had not a divine whispered some of these committee men, had this doctrine been voted blasphemy, "*Persecutio undecima*," a *Brief of the Fanatick Persecution of the Protestant Clergy of the Church of England*, 1648.

Dr. Frank Sayers, page 119.—See the Memoir prefixed to his Works edited by William Taylor. Also an article upon Sayers in an early number of the Quarterly. A notice of him appears in Chalmers's Norfolk Gazetteer.

Address to Richard Cromwell, page 102.

"To his highness Richard, Protector of the common wealth of England, Scotland and Ireland, the dominions and territories thereto belonging. The humble petition of the bailiffs, aldermen, and common-council of the corporation of Great Yarmouth, in common-council assembled.

We cannot, without deepest and most sad resentment, remember that late dark dispensation of the most wise God, in taking out of this world your highness's most renowned father, the prince and leader of his people in the three nations, translating him from a temporal to an immortal crown; which we have great cause to lament, being smitten of God, for our many sins and afflicted; so good, so great a man, the captain of the Lord's host being fallen in Israel, and who is not made weak? But as that is far better for him, so it proves not so ill to us, as was justly feared, our punishments being far less than our deserts: it pleasing our good God to bind up our wounds, and to heal the breach of the daughter of his people, by your highness's so immediate peaceful succession after so many cursed plots of the sons of Belial and children of darkness, to cut him off before his time, so as he might not go down to his grave in peace, nor leave these nations a quiet habitation, for his people to dwell in under your highness's protection. The which blessed providence is most transparent to our view, it breaking forth out of so great and thick a cloud of darkness; which as it was the only hope and desire of your's, and the nation's enemies, so it began to clothe the face of your's, and the nations truest friends with paleness: but it no sooner appeared than vanished, and the sun arose with those glorious and resplendent beams of light, dispelling all those former malignant and stupendous vapours, which as it cannot without great unthankfulness but turn our sorrows into joys; so it cannot without great stupidity, but return their fears upon them, and their high raised expectations of light into the shadow of death, inevitably sinking their spirits into an everlasting despair. Especially when they shall consider, how by a constant series of providence, they have met with nothing but saddest disappointments, yea, when their hopes were at the highest, in the late wars, both the then contesting parties solemnly appealing to the great God of hosts to make a just and righteous decision, when clouds and darkness were round about him, that he made it appear in our sights, and in the eyes of all the nations, that judgement and righteousness were the habitation of his throne: for he clothed himself with vengeance as with a cloak, and went forth travelling in the greatness of his strength to save the poor, and deliver the needy from him that pushed at them. And now hath called forth your highness in peace to protect his people in these gospel and civil liberties which were chiefly in the eyes and upon the hearts of all those who did at first conscientiously engage and hazard their lives, in the high places of the field, where many fell, leaving us to inherit them as the price of their blood. In prosecution and security thereof, through the assistance and grace of the most high God, we though unworthy to be numbered amongst the least of the tribes of Israel, shall not be wanting in our utmost to follow your most hopeful and happy conduct, and continually to pray that the Lord, that hath called you, would enable you, with a spirit of wisdom, a spirit of council, and of the fear of the Lord, to go in and out before this great people; and to feed them according to the integrity of your heart; and to guide them by the skilfulness of your hand. Then will our God say, I have found one, the son of my servant, a man after mine own heart, he shall fulfil all my will; and then shall Jacob rejoice, and Israel shall be glad, and not cease to pray for the precious things of heaven, above him, and of the earth beneath, and the fulness thereof, and for the good will of him that dwelleth in the bush. Let this blessing come upon the head of your highness, and upon the top of the head of him that is separated above his bretheren. Of this assembly we are

Thomas Lucas }
John Woodroffe } Bailiffs."

With many other names.

Right Hon. John Howe, Lord Chedworth, page 141.—The name of this nobleman, fourth and last of the title, occurs with some frequency in the published correspondence of the members of that lettered society, which towards the close of last century met annually, during the Yarmouth season, for mutual intercourse. An accomplished scholar, a firm and consistent Whig, but of a mean exterior and timid awkward carriage, it is probable that to his rank he was largely indebted for the deference shewn to him in the locality. A painful incident in his youth had cast a blight upon his after career and led to his withdrawal from public life. He had been grossly insulted and assaulted on the Epsom race stand, without displaying physical courage to resent the outrage. From public life he turned to literary pursuits, qualifying himself for admission into the roll of noble authors by his 'Notes upon obscure passages in Shakspeare's Plays,' published after his death by his legatee. These notes consist of criticisms upon the readings and emendations of the contemporary shoal of commentators, rather than of original corrections of his own. Twenty-four years after his death, in 1804, a 4to. volume of Letters addressed to one of his friends was given to the world. These hardly possess sufficient literary merit to justify publication. Neglected, and as he conceived slighted by his own family, Lord Chedworth, in the closing years of his life, placed himself under the care of Mr. Penrice, an apothecary at Yarmouth, whose attentions to him were acknowledged in his will. After bequeathing £40,000 to one individual, and a few other trifling legacies, Mr. Penrice was appointed residuary legatee, a bequest which he concluded might produce £10,000 until the recipient of the £40,000, proposed to give him £100,000 for his expectations. To this offer Mr. Penrice shrewdly replied that if it was worth the while of any one to offer such a sum it was equally worth his to await the settlement of his lordship's affairs, a determination which ultimately put him in possession of over £300,000.

Bridget Bendysh, page 155.—The notice of this remarkable woman in Grainger, is an abridgement of 'the character of Mrs. Bridget Bendysh,' by the Rev. Mr. Say, a very unsatisfactory performance. This, and an account of her from another pen in the same volume seem to embody such particulars of her life as have been handed down. The Rev. W. Anderson, in his recently published *Memoirs of celebrated Puritan Ladies*, 2 vols., has one of Mrs. Bendysh, based upon these materials.

THE EAST ANGLIAN FISHERIES.

The Commissioners appointed in 1863 to inquire into the condition of the Sea Fisheries of the United Kingdom, presented their Report to Parliament at the opening of the session of 1866, whilst the last sheet of this work was in the press. A short abstract of this important blue book will form a valuable Supplement to the foregoing chapters on the East Coast Fisheries.

To the outcry raised in some quarters that the supply of fish is diminishing, an emphatic negative is given, based on the returns supplied by the various railways, which demonstrate a steady, progressive increase from year to year. The returns of twelve English and Scotch lines of railway were—1862, 99,724 tons—1863, 108,721 tons—1864, 122,381 tons. Of this quantity the Great Eastern carried nearly half, viz.—42,995, 51,829 and 56,409 tons. Instead of a decline of catch on the East coast, as alleged, an annual increase of 10,000 tons is shewn. Whilst the number of vessels is constantly increasing, so is the take, and owing to speedier transport the quality of fish is improving. It is not uncommon for a trawler to take on the western part of the Dogger from two to three tons of fish in a three hours' trawl. On the Yorkshire and Lincolnshire coast, at Hull, Grimsby, and Scarborough, the growth of the fishery has been very marked. The fish landed at Hull in 1854 was 1,571 tons, in 1864 10,782 tons; at Grimsby it was 1514 tons in 1856, and 11,196 in 1864. At Yarmouth it rose from 20,399 tons in 1860 to 34,432 tons in 1864; and at Lowestoft from 13,030 tons to 17,940 tons. So plentiful has lately been the herring catch at Scarborough, that from 700 to 800 tons are said to be sometimes sent thence, inland, in a single day. At Yarmouth, where from

3000 to 4000 men are engaged in the autumn herring fishery, the take of 1862 and 1863 was better than had been known for twenty years. The weight of herrings annually caught is probably greater than that of all other sea fish together.

On the East coast and in the London fish market the trade divide the fish into two classes, 'prime' and 'offal.' The prime comprise sole, turbot, brill, and cod; the offal, chiefly haddock, plaice, and whiting. The term 'offal' seems to have arisen at the time when, fish conveyance being limited, much of the inferior kinds were thrown overboard. One-fourth prime to three-fourths offal is an average of trawl catch of prime fish; sole is the favourite, and large supplies of it are sent from the London market to Paris. Mr. Knott, a Grimsby trawl owner, computed the wholesale price realized to be—prime, £23 per ton, and offal only £2. The capital engaged in the fisheries now yields a satisfactory return, and the Commissioners express their conviction that no class of our labouring people are now in more comfortable circumstances than our fishermen. Their numbers have doubled in the last twenty years.

The importance of fish as an article of food is shewn by comparing the total supply of fish and beef to London. The latter is computed to amount to 300,000 fat cattle, producing 90,000 tons annually. From 800 to 900 trawlers supply the London market, which at an average of ninety tons yield 80,000 tons of trawled fish. This is exclusive of the vast quantity of herrings, shell fish, &c. But whilst the fisherman receives on an average but £7 per ton, the farmer is readily paid not less than £60. And yet at the West End fish costs more per pound than beef or mutton, and whilst the fisherman receives but 3d. to 4d. a pound at Billingsgate for prime fish, the buyer is charged 1s., 1s. 3d. and 1s. 6d. by the retailer. Our most frequented fishing grounds are much more prolific of food than the same extent of richest land. Whilst a well tilled acre may return during the year a ton of corn, or two or three cwt. of meat or cheese, the same area at the bottom of the sea will yield a greater weight of food every week in the year.

Into the controverted question whether the present modes of fishing involve a waste of spawn and immature fish, the Commissioners enter at great length. The statistics of the trawl fishery are gone into; at the present time 200 trawlers leave the Thames, 150, Yarmouth, 300, the Humber, Scarborough, and Lowestoft, for the Dogger and other fishing banks of the North Sea. In the Channel, 50 sail from Ramsgate, 80 from Brixham, 60 from Plymouth. In the Irish Seas, 50 from Liverpool, 20, Fleetwood, 50, Dublin. Excluding minor ports, nearly 1000 trawlers of from forty to sixty tons are employed round our coasts, manned by 5000 souls, representing a capital of £1000,000, supplying the markets, daily, with 300 tons of fish, value from £1500 to £2000.

The results of suppressing trawling are stated as follows, in the evidence of Mr. J. T. Morgan, fish salesman of London—of haddock, brought into Billingsgate, 99 of every 100 are trawl caught. There would be no flat fish and an end of turbot and soles, which cannot be caught by line fishing. Whilst a trawler costs £11 a week, a line fishing vessel requires £16, and the former will catch ten times the quantity of the latter. Mr. Marchant, another salesman, remarked that whilst formerly from forty to fifty vessels supplied the London market forty years ago, now there are from 800 to 900, catching on an average treble as many fish as vessels did formerly.

The assertion that trawl fish are commonly brought up dead or greatly damaged is denied. In fine weather they come up alive and uninjured; in bad weather a proportion are apt to be damaged and rendered unsaleable. That fish spawn is brought up and destroyed is also denied. By spawn, what was really implied were eggs of squid, jelly fishes, zoophytes, ascidians, and all sorts of soft and gelatinous looking inhabitants of the sea; of small and inferior fish, the proportion taken is greater in shallow water than in deep.

The Commissioners report that trawl fishing is the source of the greatest supply of fish, other than herring; that some fish can be captured by no other mode, that it engages the largest capital, employs most hardy fishermen, is least under control of the weather, and yields the greatest return for the labour and capital employed.

That there is no reason to believe that trawling in the open sea destroys the spawn of fish.

That there is no proof that trawling has permanently diminished the supply of fish from any trawling ground, but that there is evidence to the contrary.

That it is not a wastefully destructive mode of fishing, but the contrary.

That any legislative restriction upon trawling would result in a great decrease in the supply of fish.

The East Coast trawlers from Barking, Lowestoft, Yarmouth, Grimsby, and Hull, never trawl within twenty miles of the shore, or in less water than twenty fathoms. Several in the warm weather cross over to the Dutch coast and trawl along the banks from the Texel to Schelling, often within three miles of the shore, which for a distance of one hundred and fifty miles is described as good for trawling, and abounding in flat fish.

The French herring boats—of larger and stouter construction than the English, require heavier and clumsier nets, which are less pliable and take proportionately fewer fish.

By the French Convention Act, mackerel drift fishermen are required to lower all sails to show they have taken their berths, and must keep three quarters of a mile from one another in shooting their nets. The meshes of the drift net must be $1\frac{1}{6}$ inches from knot to knot, trawl nets $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches, trammel nets, 2 inches.

The annual catch of the Dutch herring fishery has risen from 24,969,000 in 1858, to 33,535,000 in 1864.

THE FOLLOWING TABLES ARE TAKEN FROM THE APPENDIX OF THE SEA FISHERIES' COMMISSION REPORT.

Return of the Shipments of Herrings from Yarmouth to foreign parts, in the ten years ended December 31st, 1864.

	barrels.		barrels.		barrels.
1855 ..	20,248	1858 ..	41,962	1862 ..	44,786
1856 ..	38,227	1859 ..	32,799	1863 ..	44,317
1857 ..	39,401	1860 ..	54,684	1864 ..	38,522
		1861 ..	35,849		

The falling off in the later years is accounted for by the large removals of fish, coast-wise and by rail to London, for exportation from that port.

Lowestoft Harbour—Fish Market Returns.

	Spring her.	Mids. her.	Mich. her.	Soles pack-	Offal do.
	Lasts T. H.	Lasts T. H.	Lasts T. H.	ages.	
1860 ..	1521 3 2	304 8 2	2645 6 1	29,439	..
1861 ..	793 9 6	261 0 2	3613 8 9	23,374	18,077
1862 ..	538 5 4	75 2 4	5711 7 4	20,061	14,362
1863 ..	1044 4 5	17 3 2	5226 5 6	45,296	26,904
1864 ..	1634 4 3	38 4 4	4675 1 2	34,638	22,059

The computation of herrings is in lasts, thousands, and hundreds.

The boats belonging to Lowestoft have increased from 32, in 1854, to 167 in 1864, of a tonnage ranging from 11 to 35 tons, manned by 5 to 11 men and boys.

The average yearly amount earned by these boats fluctuates considerably, ranging as follows—1854, £455; 1855, £753; 1856, £598; 1859, £332; 1860, £509; 1862, £232; 1864, £500.

The Lowestoft Mackerel farcing seems almost to have died out. In 1854 twenty boats were engaged, earning an average of £173; 1855, six boats, £155; 1858, ten, £71; 1862, three, £9; 1864, three, £31 13s.

Return of Weight of Sea Fish carried on Great Eastern Railway Stations, 1860-4.

	1860	1861	1862	1863	1864
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
Yarmouth ..	20,399	27,222	28,346	31,947	34,432
Lowestoft ..	13,030	12,436	11,728	15,685	17,340
Harwich ..	1,507	1,830	1,690	2,071	1,931

Table No. 40 gives the Weight and Value of Fish caught by one trawler, 1860-4.

	Tons	£	Tons	£
1860 ..	85 realizing	434	1863 ..	92 realizing 600
1861 ..	82 ..	570	1864 ..	117 .. 632
1862 ..	65 ..	465	—	—

The Fair Women of East Anglia, page 247.—In 1473 Henry VI. purposed to visit Norwich, and William Paston writes down from Sheen, "And there he will be on Palm Sunday even, and so tarry there all Easter, and then to Walsingham, wherefore ye had need warn William Gogney and his fellows to purvey them of wine enough, for every man beareth me in hand that the town shall be drunk dry as York was when the King was there, 'and all the best looking gentlewomen were to be assembled, 'for my Lorde hathe made grete hoste of the fayre and goode gentylwomen of ye contrey, and so the Kynge seyde he wolde see them, sure.'"

The Rev. C. Kingsley, in his "Hereward, the Last of the Saxons," writes admiringly of "the rich and delicate beauty in which the Women of the Eastern Counties still surpass all other races in these isles."

NOTES ON THE FARMING OF EAST NORFOLK.

In a county pre-eminent for the excellence of its farming, the Hundreds of Flegg take rank as the most fertile of its soils. Here was the cradle of that regular and long established system of alternate cropping, that system of husbandry which, borrowed from their neighbours, and carried out on a wider scale by the large farmers of the west, attracted the notice of other districts, and was gradually transplanted throughout England. The social condition of the two sides of the county widely differed. Eastwards the land was, to a great extent, in the hands of small owners, and entire parishes were occupied by these "statesmen," as they were termed, who tilled the soil after the manner of their fathers, time out of mind. Westward were a race of farmers holding from a broad-acred squirearchy extensive tracts of sheep-walks and barren heaths. To the introduction of long leases, now more than a century back, coincident with a commencement made to break up the heaths and warrens of North and West Norfolk, the great improvement of modern farming may be ascribed. Large fortunes were made by the Western farmers in enclosing and reclaiming these unprofitable wastes, and marling them after the methods of East Norfolk. The spectacle of the growing wealth of their neighbours had an injurious effect on many of the "statesmen." Some were drawn into extravagancies beyond their means; others were induced to sell their small patrimonies to become the tenants of larger farms, and many small properties have thus become merged into the adjoining large estates.

At a glance it is obvious that East Norfolk is a very old enclosed country. Woods and coppices are almost unknown, and plantations are thin and wide apart. The hedgerows provided shelter for the stock, and timber for the use of the farm. The enclosures are generally small, and the hedges high and full of trees. This has a curious effect in travelling through the country—one seems ever on the verge of a forest, which is, as it were by enchantment, continually changing into enclosures and hedgerows. Nowhere is this more striking than in the neighbourhood of the Broad, whose margins realise most vividly the scenery of that most exquisite of all stories, Undine.

As a result of the scarcity of timber, nowhere are hedges suffered to stand to so great an age and growth as in Norfolk. White thorn flourishes in the soil, and full-stemmed luxuriant hedges abound. Oak and holly, or "hulver," as it is locally termed, are largely planted at intervals in the hedgerows.

The great size of the barns attached to the farm-yard attract a stranger's eye. They are larger and more numerous than in any other county, owing to the ample threshing floors required by the old Norfolk method of cleaning corn by casting it with shovels from one end of the floor to the other. The hog styes are built on the same liberal scale, and are entered by doors as lofty as those of the other outbuildings.

The old wooden Norfolk plough, the "star-gazer," as modern ploughwrights have dubbed it, with its clumsy fore-carriage and rampant beam, still maintains its ground. It was borrowed, some writers say, along with their method of husbandry from the Dutch. Sir John Sinclair remarks, "to oblige the ploughman to walk upright, and to carry his own weight, the Nor-

folk and Suffolk ploughs have but one handle, which soon tires the hand of the man who presses on it. It has the merit of extreme lightness, its share broad and flat, suiting the shallow sandy loam. Mr. Coke, of Holkham, was always ready to bet upon it when matched against any other, and when in the hands of the nimble Norfolk plow-jogger, he rarely lost a wager.

The churches and cottages have a reed roofing more substantial and durable than thatch. The margins of the Broads supply immense quantities of reed, the cutting of which begins about Christmas, and continues until the young shoots appear. The first coat of reed thatch is high, but if well laid it will last fifty years without touching, and thirty or forty more with adjusting (driving) and levelling the hollows with fresh reed. Gladdon or "cat's-tail," which grows in the marsh, is also used, but is very inferior in its duration.

Barley and wheat are allowed to get very ripe before cutting, and the "Norfolk red," a very old local growth of wheat, enriches with a glorious tint the autumnal landscape. It is said that the cosh or husk of the white wheat when introduced grows red after repeated sowings. It was the custom here among some farmers when wheat fields abounded with poppies or "red weed" to turn swine into them to eat it out, which was said to be done with little damage.

East Norfolk farms are almost invariably arable upland, with a small proportion of meadow, the local name for low boggy grassland. In some situations the farms have no grassland, and hire marshes or grazing grounds at a distance of from ten to thirty miles. The Yarmouth marshes cover an area of many square miles, and afford pasturage to thousands of cattle turned on from Spring to Christmas.* Next to their corn crops, bullock-feeding occupies the farmers of the district, which is unfavourable for sheep, which do not thrive either on the marsh pastures. In the autumn months East Norfolk farmers are said to be "as free from sheep as elephants," a few only being kept on until harvest to be killed for what is called "harvest beef" for the labourer at that season. Tusser's advice to the farmer, in his *Autumn Husbandry*, is now obsolete in East Norfolk:—

"In travelling homeward, buy forty good crones,
And fat up the bodies of those seely old bones."

The grazing parts of the marshes are divided into sections of various sizes by water-courses ranging from five to ten feet wide. The larger of these, which resemble canals, are termed swims. In moving cattle on to the pastures it is usual to carry the leader of the herd over in a ferry-boat, the remainder will then swim across to rejoin him. The marsh enclosures vary from ten to one hundred acres, and belong to a variety of owners, who let them to a still greater number of occupiers, almost every farmer for miles round having his marsh. On the wetter portions a long wiry grass, called by the marshmen "slot," flourishes, and this the cattle are fond of. A stranger traversing these marshes soon gets weary of them, although the landscape seems illimitable, the watercourses with their never-ending right angles and parallel lines, restricting his movements in every direction, are apt to create a feeling of confinement, which becomes at last intensely irritating.

* "Our journey the following day to Yarmouth was through a district so much resembling Flanders that nothing was wanted to make the resemblance perfect but the fine avenues of trees adorning the Low Countries, which serve to diversify the tameness of a level country. Perhaps there is not a more fertile part of our island. The fields resemble extensive gardens, and everywhere among the standing corn, or in the pasturelands, the utmost attention to neatness was visible. In the cottages the same disposition was conspicuous."—*Dr. Clarke's Travels*, vol. ix., 1824.

Marling or claying has been the great fertiliser of the light sandy loam of Norfolk, and is found in almost every parish embedded in the sandy substrata in beds or "jams." The marl burns also into a serviceable lime, of which the district is destitute.* Coltsfoot (*tussilago farfara*) is looked upon as indicating its presence, whilst "buddle" or corn marigold (*chrysanthemum segetum*) and smart weed (*polygonum Pennsylvanicum*) are symptoms that the land on which they abound requires marling. More marling is now used than ever for arable crops, applied twelve tons to the acre it will last for a dozen years, and fifteen or sixteen tons, for twenty years.

Wisely making use of their local resources, the farmers round Yarmouth obtain from it large quantities of manure. Surrounded by marshes and the sea, straw is a scarce and dear article in the town, and the stables are littered with sea-sand instead of straw. As the bed becomes solled or wet, fresh sand is scattered on, until the whole is saturated with dung, and a muck of singular excellence is the result, which is in request at a great distance round. Many wherry loads are carried up the rivers. Refuse fish, herring, and sprats are also mixed with sea-sand or mould, and used as manure for turnips. Another fertilising compost is "manner," the shovellings of the ditches and marsh bottoms, dead weeds, leaves, and the moulderings of the banks and sides. An inferior local manure is the burnt ash of the roots, &c., of the aquatic plants of the marsh. A more coveted application to the land is "mergin," the rubbish of old buildings, and the mortar or cement of old "sea-stone" or flint-walls, supplying a large quantity of it.

Rabbit warrens are not common, a level country not suiting them as well as the sides of sand-hills. On the flat, rabbits find it difficult to burrow, the excavated mould having all to be dragged upwards to the surface.

Few cattle, grazed in Norfolk, are bred in the county, the majority being bought at Norwich and elsewhere in the autumn, and sold for the London market, January to July. Formerly, the cattle grazed were chiefly Galloway Scots; now few find their way into the county, their place being taken by Irish cross-breeds. The celebrated fair of St. Faith, to which immense numbers of Scotch cattle were brought, has been superseded by the large weekly market on the Norwich Castle Hill, and the old inn at St. Faith's—the Highland Laddie—has been shut up.

Norwich market is largely supplied with veal, pork, lamb, and sometimes mutton, by the small farmers for many miles round, who can dress a calf, a lamb, or a sheep as well as any butcher, and carcasses, with poultry made ready for the spit, are carried by themselves or their wives and daughters to Norwich market in panniers or peds (see p. 615), and placed in rows in the

* "There appears generally to be a bottom of clay; not soft chalk, which they persist in calling clay in Norfolk. I wish I had one of these Norfolk men in a coppice in Hampshire or Sussex, and I would show him what clay is. Clay is what pots and pans and jugs and tiles are made of; and not soft whitish stuff that crumbles to pieces in the sun, instead of baking as hard as a stone, and which in dry weather is to be broken to pieces by nothing short of a sledge hammer. The narrow ridges on which the wheat is sown, the water furrows, the water standing in the dips of the pastures, the rusty iron-like colour of the water coming out of some of the banks, the deep ditches, the rusty look of the pastures, all show that here is a bottom of clay. Yet there is gravel too, for the oaks do not grow well. It was not till I got nearly to Sudbury, that I saw much change for the better. Here the bottom of chalk, the soft dirty looking chalk that the Norfolk people call clay, begins to be the bottom, and this, with very little exception, as far as I have been, is the bottom of all the lands of these two fine counties of Suffolk and Norfolk * * * * The farming all along to Norwich is very good; the land clean, and everything done in a masterly manner."—*Cobbett's Rural Rides*.

"ped market," the housewives sitting alongside their wares.* A general usage in some parts, of the farmers killing their own meat in those places renders the trade of butcher but indifferent. The large flocks of turkeys, for which Norfolk is famous, are reared by the cottagers and small farmers. Their superior size and flavour is attributed to the buck or "brank," with which they are almost wholly fed, and which is largely grown here. The turkey feeding and marsh pasturage of cattle attracted the notice of Defoe in his *Tour through England*, 1724.

Chaucer's portrait of the Norfolk Reve, with its sly strokes of satire, lead us to form a high opinion of the farming here, even at that early period. It is noteworthy that the two classics of English farming, Tusser and Arthur Young, should have both proceeded from East Anglia, and both should have failed in it as farmers.

The distinctive local peculiarities of Norfolk and Suffolk, physical and mental, have been attributed by some writers to the differences of soil and climate. The heavy soil of Suffolk is accredited with producing breeds of horses, cows, and pigs, short, squab, and punchy, and a race of natives to correspond, dull, and stubborn as the clods of their fields. "Silly Suffolk" and "Essex Calves" are local amenities liberally bestowed on each other by the natives. Norfolk labourers, like their plough teams, are of an active wiry breed.† The Norfolk pig is a hungry, narrow, flat-sided, long-nosed animal. The old Norfolk sheep, with his long black face and great curling horns, is nearly extinct, the remnant of the breed lingering on in the parks of the gentry. The once famous Norfolk trotting cob has greatly degenerated. Possessing the natural soil for game, it is proverbially a game county.

Norfolk and Suffolk are nearly exempt from the ague which prevails on the Essex Coast. This they owe to the gravelly and chalky bottom of their soil. The healthiness of the former is shown in the fact that with Rutlandshire the longevity of its inhabitants exceeds that of all other counties.

The fishing villages of the East Coast have the reputation of sending a much smaller proportional quota of prisoners to the county gaols than the inland agricultural districts.‡

* "Norwich is a very fine city, and the castle which stands in the middle of it, on a hill, is truly majestic. The meat, poultry, and vegetable market is beautiful. It is kept in a large open space in the middle, or nearly so, of the city. The ground is a pretty sharp slope, so that you see all at once. It resembles one of the French markets. only *there* the vendors are all standing and gabbling like parrots, and the meat is lean and bloody and nasty, and the people snuffy and grimy in hands and face, the contrary, precisely the contrary, of all which is the case in this beautiful market at Norwich, where all the women have a sort of uniform, brown great coats, with white aprons and *bibs* (I think they call them) going from the apron up to the bosom. They equal in neatness (for nothing can surpass) the marketwomen in Philadelphia. The cattle market is held on the hill by the castle, and many *fairs* are smaller in bulk of stock. The corn market is held in a very magnificent place, called St. Andrew's Hall, which will contain two or three thousand persons."—*Cobbett's Rural Rides*.

† "The Norfolk people are quick and smart in their motions and in their speaking. Very neat and trim in all their farming concerns, and very skillful. Their land is good, their roads are level, and the bottom of their soil is dry, to be sure, and these are great advantages, but they are diligent and make the most of everything. Their management of all sorts of stock is most judicious. They are careful about manure, their teams move quickly, and, in short, it is a county of most excellent cultivators."—*Idem*.

‡ "It is curious that though the people (I mean the poorer classes of people) are extremely neat in their houses, you do not see about their cottages that *ornamental gardening*, the walks, and the flower borders, and the

YARMOUTH ROADS.

(See Chart of the Roads, facing page 151.)

A few notes upon the buoying and lighting of the Yarmouth Roads, the most crowded with traffic of the silent highways along our Eastern coast, are brought together below, drawn mainly from the Blue Books issued in 1861.

Both duties are undertaken by the Trinity House Corporation, which dates from the reign of Henry VII., first appearing as an association for piloting ships, its first charter being issued A.D. 1514, and its first light being erected in 1680. England is divided into eight buoy districts, each receiving its supply from head quarters, but holding a reserve in store. Buoy requisites are that it should be conspicuous, distinctive and permanent. They are liable to be fouled and run down. Some are apt to disappear under water as soon as the tide becomes strong, reappearing only at slack water.

Until lately no attempt was made to buoy channels and harbours on any uniform system. Now, in the North, red buoys are placed on the starboard hand in entering harbour, and black on the port hand. The Irish Board reverse this. The Trinity House now buoy all channels, not already done, with red or black buoys to starboard on entering from the sea, and chequered to port, the outermost buoy on either hand being usually a large or beacon buoy if necessary; middle dangers being usually marked with buoys with black beacons. These are the colours preferred by seamen, with angular forms, as being most visible at sea. Black is the colour most discernible at night; white is most unsuitable on water, and hard to be distinguished.

The cost of a buoy varies greatly. The Trinity House usually employ can buoys, costing from £27 to £36. It has also many of a better kind costing £58, £130, and even £197 complete. The can buoy in common use is extinguisher shape, the base formerly floating uppermost, but now reversed as it floated generally on its side. The largest are 9½ feet high, showing 7½ feet above water. The Nun buoy, with a shape resembling two extinguishers joined at their base, is only used to mark wrecks, is 8 feet long, and painted green. It is made of staves, shows 5 feet above water, weighs from 4 cwt. to 5 cwt., its cooperage costing £9. Iron buoys have proved useless, it being found impossible to prevent their rusting through the paint, and getting mistaken for red buoys. The buoy chains are 1½ inch, the length of cable equal to twice the depth of water. They ride to square iron sinkers, which are now being made hollow to add the effect of suction to their weight. On some parts of the coast stone-sinkers are used on sandy bottoms, and iron sinkers on rock, the former not sinking so deep down in the sand, nor opposing so much resistance to the weighing. Chains wear more on a sandy bottom than on rocks. £2 2s. reward is paid for bringing in a drifted buoy.

Fire beacons are of very early use. Coal fires were formerly employed as lights upon the coast, the last, that of St. Bees, was extinguished in 1822. The man employed at Harwich in tending the coal beacon (burnt in an open grate, with a pair of bellows attached) was recently alive.

The light employed in modern English lighthouses is universally derived from the combustion of colza oil. When silvered reflectors are used the argand lamp is employed with burners varying in numbers from 1 to 30—the *Catoptric* system (seeing *against* a reflecting background). When lenses are employed, a large central lamp, with a number of concentric wicks—the *Dioptric* system (seeing *through*). The former is chiefly employed in English, the latter in Scotch lighthouses. The former is visible at the greatest distances. Coloured lights are more expensive than white, absorbing a large portion of the rays emitted from the lamp, and requiring much oil to main-

honey suckles and roses trained over the doors, or over arched sticks that you see in Hampshire, Sussex, and Kent, that I have many a time sitten upon my horse to look at so long and so often as greatly to retard me on my journey.”
—*Cobbett's Rural Rides*.

tain the required intensity. Green and blue lights are specially objectionable, except for short ranges, a misty atmosphere absorbing the rays of those colours. Red rays are remarkably penetrating, though in some states of the atmosphere it is difficult to distinguish white from red.

Yearly cost of a Dioptric light—Oil, £76 18s.; wicks, £1 14s. 2d.; keepers' salaries, £126 10s. 9d.; repairs of building, £29 6s. 2d.; repairs of apparatus, £13 2s. 4d.; painting £24 2s. 8d.; total, £265. The cost of a Catoptric light is £340 yearly, the extra cost arising from the large quantity of oil consumed.

The Trinity lighthouses are remarkable for their order and cleanliness, and for the attention paid to the comfort of the men, who undergo a course of instruction at the Blackwall establishment of the Board. The following statistics of the lighthouses on this coast are taken from Government returns:—

CHROMER LIGHTHOUSE.—250 yards from the cliff. Application for light first made 1674, by Sir John Clayton. Renewed 1718 by the coal masters of Ipswich, Newcastle, and Yarmouth. A coal fire shown from 1719 to 1792. The present tower, erected in 1833. Height of lighthouse 61 feet, light above high water mark 274 feet, visible to the eye in clear weather 23 miles. A bright revolving light with a revolution every three minutes showing a face every minute. A Catoptric light, with clockwork revolving machinery. 30 burners, consuming 968 gallons of oil at estimated cost of 3s. 4d. and 124 dozen wicks per annum. Income for 1852 £3918 3s. 10d. expenditure £394 6s. 1d. Fogs were noticed on 45 days in 1850. Cost of construction £2892 0s. 7d., cost of lantern £1056. Two keepers, one £65 one 4s per annum. The old lighthouse is still standing close to the edge of the cliff. It was abandoned because it was feared the cliff would fall.

HALSBORO' High and Low lighthouses, erected 1789 by the coal trade, established together with the floating light for the guidance of vessels passing in and out of Halsboro' Gatway. The higher 94 feet high, the light 137 feet above high water, visible 17 miles, the lower 74 feet high, 100 feet above high water mark, visible 15 miles; both fixed bright lights. Catoptric, with 18 burners. Fogs were noticed on 17 days in 1850. Cost of the two lighthouses (painted white) and dwellings about £5800 and of the two lanterns and lighting apparatus £1851. Each consuming about 400 gallons of oil and 80 dozen wicks. Income in 1852 £5650 10s. 7d. including the Newark floating light which has to be defrayed from the lighthouse receipts. Expenditure of lighthouses in 1858 £631 7s. 1d. Each has two keepers, at £65 and £45 salaries.

WINTERTON LIGHTHOUSE.—Application for it first made about 1615, and shown about that date. Height 66½ feet, 97 feet above high water, visible 14 miles. A fixed bright light, Catoptric, 11 burners, consuming in 1858, 415 gallons of oil, 76 dozen wicks. Fogs were noticed 81 days in 1858. Purchased 1857 from private owners with the two Orford lights, for £37,896. The income of the three in 1852 was £9860.

LOWESTOFT High and Low lighthouses, situated to enable vessels to pass into Stanford Channel from the southward, with the two lights in one. The upper light first shown in 1609, rebuilt 1628 and 1676. An oil light introduced 1796 Height of upper lighthouse 53 feet, above high water mark 119 feet, visible 16 miles. A fixed bright light, Catoptric 11 burners, consuming 474 gallons of oil, 90 dozen wicks. 27 days fog noticed in 1858. Joint revenue in 1852 of the Lowestoft high and low lighthouses, Pakefield lighthouse and the Stanford floating light £5657. Expenditure 1858, of the high and low lighthouses £364 17s. 2d. Two light keepers, £65 and £45.

LOWESTOFT LOWER or BEACH LIGHTHOUSE.—First shown 1608, and in 1730 as an oil light, improved 1796, present lighthouse 1832, height 48 feet, above high water 45 feet, visible 11 miles, a fixed bright light, Catoptric three burners, using in 1858 131 gallons of oil and 18 dozen wicks, one keeper £65.

PAKEFIELD LIGHTHOUSE.—The light opens at a passage indicated by the chart and guides vessels through a narrow channel between the Newcome and Barnard Sands. Shown 1832. Height 34 feet, above high water 68 feet, visible 9 miles, fixed red light, Catoptric two burners consuming 87 gallons of oil, 18 dozen wicks, two keepers £65 and £45.

FLOATING LIGHTS.—The Trinity Corporation have 33 floating lights under their charge. When used to mark danger, they are placed as near to it as can be done with safety. The Catoptric principle of lighting is found most suitable. An apparatus, with fixed light of eight burners, will cost £351, one with 4 burners revolving, £398 10s. The first floating light, the Nore, was applied for and placed in 1732.

Oil is always burnt on light ships in Argand lamps, with silvered reflectors, the surface of which appear to be much more liable to injuries and scratches than in lighthouses, and also wear out much quicker.

The average cost of a Trinity House light ship, fully equipped, exclusive of stores, is £3,622 13s. 7d., and the average expense of maintaining it £1,103 18s. 1d., under the following heads, repairs and painting, £70 8s. 5d.; oil, £59 7s. 8d.; wages, £430 19s. 2d., and 11 suits of uniform; victualling, £301 2s. 6d. This is a much higher sum than is required to maintain a light on shore.

The most exposed situations for light ships are neither the most dangerous or disagreeable. The long sea on such stations and great length of chain required to anchor in deep water make the light ships ride much easier than when the seas are shorter, the water shallower, and the current stronger, as with the Ower and Cockle light ships. This is explained by the fact, that when the wind is strong, and its direction across a strong tide, a vessel often rides broadside to the sea. In the open sea the tides are not so strong, and the waves are larger. The master of the Humber light vessel, who had crossed the Atlantic sixty times, declared he had never met so nasty a sea as in the River Humber.

Light vessels seldom go adrift, and there is no instance on record in which the crew have voluntarily run from their stations in bad weather, nor have their lights ever been accidentally extinguished. Light vessels remain on their stations seven years, and are then brought in to receive a thorough repair; their cables are changed every four years, the old chains, 1½ inch, being converted into chains for the buoys. The 1½ inch cables are made of the best Welch iron, and are tested by exposure to a strain of 80 tons, every link being afterwards struck with heavy hammers. Each vessel has 208 fathoms; she has also a spare anchor and chain; she rides at her station to a mushroom anchor, and the cable is hove in or veered, according to the weather. The Trinity light vessels are all painted red. The balls, which are hoisted at the masthead, to distinguish light vessels from each other, are made of wood, hollow, and open, and are also painted red.

The lantern of a floating light requires a thorough overhaul after seven years' wear and tear. It has three sets of orifices for ventilation at the top, sides, and underneath, which can be diminished, at pleasure. In a gale, the upper holes have to be closed to keep the lamp from being extinguished. The lamps (Argand) hang on gimbles inside the lantern, their reflectors lasting about 15 years. Bells are used in some light ships as fog signals, a 3 cwt. bell (costing £240, with working machinery) is capable of being heard four miles off in a thick fog.

The crews of light ships have no other occupation than their professional duties. Libraries are supplied to each vessel. The crew consists of 11, four of whom come on shore every month for a month, and are employed at the buoy wharf, painting, repairing, &c. The master and mate are in command, month and month about. Only good seamen are entered, rising by seniority, who receive as lightmen, £2 15s. per month; advanced to lamplighters, £3 0s. 6d.; a carpenter receives £3 12s.; mate, £4; master £5. £10 yearly is also allowed them for house rent, all find their own provisions. Beer is allowed, but no spirits. No boats are permitted to go alongside the light vessels, and the men are not allowed to board any passing ship. The men have abundant leisure time; many are very ingenious in mending and carving, and it is a common saying in Yarmouth, "Wait for the relief of a light vessel, and you can get anything, from a chest of drawers to a penny whistle. Shipwrecked crews are sometimes received on board. The vessels

are frequently visited by large flights of birds, which are attracted by the lights in the night, and fly to them. Many get killed and fall on deck, others alight on the lantern too exhausted to escape. There is a tradition on board the Newarp (the vessel which broke away in 1829) that as many as a thousand birds were once taken in one night. This vessel having three lanterns is more than ordinarily attractive. At six o'clock in the morning, the crew began to make an enormous sea-pie, into which they put six hundred, and what with plucking them, and cooking the pie, it was six in the evening before dinner was announced." Spare stores are kept in readiness to send off at a moment's emergency. A spare vessel always lies at the head-quarters of the district. The moment an accident is reported, the men on shore are mustered, and the vessel is rapidly under weigh, towed by a powerful steamer to the scene of the disaster. In a gale of wind, with drifting rain or snow, and no bearings visible, it is difficult to know whether a lightship is dragging; a vigilant watch is then kept, the spare anchor placed ready to let go, having the deep sea lead overboard lying on the ground with the rope loose. The moment she drags the rope tightens and the tale is told. If a link snap, it is subsequently cut out and sent to head quarters to undergo a minute examination. With every precaution light vessels will occasionally break loose.

The birds killed by dashing themselves against the glass of lighthouses and light ships are starlings, thrushes, blackbirds, woodcocks, and other such land birds. No sea birds ever thus kill themselves.

An unusually large number of light ships are required to indicate the continuous succession of hidden dangers which line the East Coast from Cromer to Lowestoft. We describe them in their order of station from north to south.

LEMAN and **OWER** Light Ship, moored between the two sands, and near the latter, is in 17 fathoms of water on coarse sand, the current of tide $2\frac{1}{2}$ knots, first placed in 1840; has two lights, the upper light 38 feet above the water, the lower 27 feet. The light ship has a length of 80 feet, a breadth of 21 feet, of wood, 158 tons, draws 7 feet forward, $8\frac{1}{2}$ aft.; has a red ball at each masthead, is fitted with two masts, one lugsail, one foresail, one mainstaysail; is moored by 210 fathoms of riding chain to a mushroom anchor weighing 32 cwt.; its ground tackle is 2 bower anchors, one 20, the other 14 cwt., and 135 fathoms of chain; is visible 10 miles; its upper light is a bright light, revolving once in four minutes, showing a flash every minute; the lower a fixed bright light. Catoptric principle—the upper with four burners, the lower eight; used fog signals 17 days in 1858. Cost of vessel, fitted, £3,474, of moorings £545, of illuminating apparatus £1204; has a crew of 11 hands. Annual cost of victualling, £301 (the contract allowance is 1s. 6d. per man). Oil burnt, 1858, 390 gallons rapeseed oil, 156 dozen wicks. Income for 1852, £4,017 5s. 10s.; expenditure, 1852, £3,215; in 1858, £1,308. In 1858 (Feb. 1 to 5) the chain parted, and the position of the vessel made it necessary to extinguish the light for four nights. In 1849 (Dec. 29 to 31) the chain parted $2\frac{1}{2}$ days. In heavy weather the floating light dips, and occasionally disappears when the vessel rolls in the sea.

HAISBORO' light ship, near the south end of the Haisboro' sand, in $16\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms of water, a rocky bottom, current of tide 3 knots. Placed 1832, a red ball at masthead, has two horizontal lights, both fixed bright, visible 10 miles, Catoptric 18 burners to each, consuming 548 gallons of oil, 214 dozen wicks. Its dimensions, sails, mooring tackle, and compliment of hands, same as Leman vessel. Fog signals used 20 days in 1858. Cost of vessel £3743, repaired in 1856 for £1078. Mooring tackle £545, lighting apparatus £792, income 1852 £3922, expenditure £1041.

NEWARP light, placed for vessels to clear north end of Newarp Flat and the Cross Sand. Placed in 1790, moved $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile east in 1802, has three lights, triangular shape, red ball at each masthead, three masts, two lugsail, one stay sail, dimensions, mooring tackle, and crew, same as the Leman vessel. Height of light above water, the upper 36 feet, lower 20 feet, visible

10 miles. Fixed bright lights, Catoptric 24 burners, consuming 843 gallons of oil, 228 dozen wicks. Fog signals used 24 days in 1858. Cost of vessel £3819, repairs in 1856 £1078; frequently damaged from ships getting into collision with it, owing to the tide setting so much athwart. Its income is included in that of Haisboro' lighthouse. Expenditure 1858 £2110. Has never parted from its anchor.

COCKLE, placed east side north entrance into Cockle Gat, the northern entrance to Yarmouth Roads, and its only night channel, in 10 fathoms of water, sandy bottom, current of tide 3 knots. Placed in 1843; 1 mast, with red ball, 1 stay sail, 1 try sail, the light 37 feet above water, visible 10 miles, bright, revolving once in 4 minutes, showing a flash every minute, Catoptric with four burners, consuming 173 gallons of oil, 77 dozen wicks; its dimensions, mooring tackle, and crew same as Leman vessel. Cost of vessel £3969, repairs in 1851 £466, cost of lighting apparatus £422. Income 1852 £2800, expenditure £847. In 1849 and in Nov. 1856, this light ship was twice adrift, the chain breaking both times on deck, there was a heavy gale from NNW on each occasion, the vessel was brought up immediately with the spare anchor, or she would otherwise have been lost on the sands, the position of the vessel made it necessary to extinguish the light during the three nights on the first occasion. In similar weather with lee tide, the master and one man always remain on deck, with axes handy, to cut the spare anchor adrift.

ST. NICHOLAS GATT Light Ship, placed at the north end of the Kettle bottom sand, to mark the fair way between the Scroby and Corton Sands, entering Yarmouth Roads through Hewett's Channel. Moored in 6 fathoms of water on sand bottom, current of tide 3 knots an hour. Placed in 1837. 155 tons. Has two masts, one 69 feet long, one 12 feet, and one staysail, red ball at masthead. Moored with 210 fathoms ground chain between two mushroom anchors of 33 cwt. each, with 150 fathoms bridle chain to centre ring; ground tackle, two bower anchors, and 105 fathoms of chain. Its upper lights are 38 feet above the water, visible 10 miles; the lower 14 feet, visible 4 miles. Both are fixed lights, the upper bright, the lower red. The upper Catoptric, with 8 burners, the lower Dioptric of the fifth order, small lenticular apparatus, with 2 concentric wick lamps, red shade round the lamp. Fogs were noticed on 24 days in 1858. Cost of vessel, £2,781; repairs to 1858, about £1,500; crew of 11 hands. Cost of Catoptric lights, £298; of Dioptric, £217. Burnt in 1858, 353 gallons of oil, 77 dozen wicks. Income in 1852, £2,828; expenditure in 1852, £833; in 1858, £1,355. The vessel's chain parted from the anchor on the night of March 9th, 1857, and the light had to be extinguished for 11 hours. The inner part of the Scroby sands is marked by white buoys, and the outer by black. At the present time the Cockle and Hewett Gats are open and the St. Nicholas closed. The Cockle Sands, off Caister, increased between 1836—44, a mile and-a-half northwards.

STANFORD Light Ship, near the north end of the Newcome Sand, off Lowestoft, towards mid-channel, to enable ships to clear the Newcome and go through the Stanford Channel; placed 1815; 129 tons; has two masts of equal height, red ball at each, two lugsails, one forestaysail, one main staysail. Moored by 150 fathoms ground chain between two mushroom anchors of 32 cwt. each, with 150 fathoms bridle chain to centre ring. Ground tackle bower anchor and 130 fathoms of chain. Height of light from water 23 feet, visible 10 miles, fixed bright lights, Catoptric of 8 burners, consuming in 1858 604 gallons of oil, 145 dozen wicks. Fogs were noted on 24 days in 1858, crew of 11 hands.

A large vessel can only enter Lowestoft harbour by Yarmouth Roads, and not from the south. Large ships cannot ride in Lowestoft Roads. Lowestoft has had its chart laid down double the scale of Yarmouth, and the depth of water in feet instead of fathoms of 6 feet.

The lights of the Cromer and of the Lowestoft high lighthouses are the two visible the greatest distance on the East coast. The lights at Orfordness,

Cromer and Winterton are bad to see in fog. Hasboro' lighthouse is rather low, but all the east coast lights are good.

Expenditure for the year 1858 for buoys off Yarmouth £1469 7s. 11d., in repairs, fittings, new buoys, &c.

Expenditure 1858 for Beacon steamer, stationed at Yarmouth, £2497 18s. 4d including the Trinity Yacht for wages £1134 18s. 5d. Coals £163 11s. 5d. storehouses and Superintendent at Yarmouth £560 3s. 2d.

The width of Yarmouth Roads is about two miles. The entrance to the Haven is by the south, a dangerous shoal running out to some distance from the North Pier, precluding entrance on that side. Dexterous seamanship is required to clear the cross currents at the mouth, and carry the vessel in with sufficient way on to clear. Before steam tugs came into use, warping was the common mode of bringing ships into the harbour. The anchoring ground in the roads is mostly good, but many wrecks occur, a number are driven on shore from neglecting to get under close sail in time, and putting off reefing too long, others from not being sufficiently anchored, some owners refusing more than fifty fathoms of chain cable to their ships, others from shipmasters neglecting to read the notices of change of position of light vessels, buoys, &c.

There were formerly about 60 pilots at Gorleston, under a ruler of pilots, licensed by the Trinity Board, but their number has latterly been diminished. They are divided into watches to go on duty, some are North Sea pilots, others make the Thames voyage, and many are Gat-way pilots, bringing in vessels from any part of the roads on their hoisting a Jack or a light. Their cutter cruises outside the Roads with a cargo of pilots, transshipping them by degrees into passing vessels.

The spring tides at the estuary of the Thames are 18 feet, diminishing on the Coast northwards, until at Lowestoft and Yarmouth they are only 7 or 8 feet, increasing hence to Cromer, where the rise is 16 feet, and at Lynn 22 to 24 feet. A strong SW or NW wind invariably raises the tides to an unusual height along the East Coast.

At Yarmouth the sea has not advanced since the reign of Elizabeth. Of late years it has receded; where the Wellington pier had 18 feet, it has now not more than 3 feet of water. A lee shore wind blowing from the NE removes shoals of sand in the offing towards the shore. An off shore wind blows from W to S, and causes stones and other heavy bodies to be brought towards the shore, which are left between high and low water mark.

A gentle breeze travels about 7 miles in the hour, a brisk wind 14, a gale about 40, and a hurricane of the West Indian type from 90 to 100 miles.

YARMOUTH HAVEN.

Yarmouth Haven extends nearly two miles and a half from its entrance northwards to the bridge, varying in depth from 9 to 19 feet at low water, with a width on an average of 255 feet, enlarging above the bridge to 330 feet. At the haven's mouth a bar of sand exists common to the mouths of rivers running through alluvial districts, and produced by their deposit of the mud brought down from above in the eddy created by the junction of the conflicting currents. At the date of the Parliamentary Enquiry of 1846, the ordinary depth of water on the bar was 8 feet, but admitting vessels of 13 or 14 feet draught at high water. The bar had been deepened within the ten years preceding by the exertions of Captain Smyth, the Pier Master of Yarmouth, nearly two feet, and the inequalities of the Haven bottom greatly remedied. In 1836, its depth in some part did not exceed 5 feet.

The ebb tide runs about $2\frac{1}{2}$ knots an hour in the middle of the haven, and with a greater velocity between the piers, flowing out at a rate of from 3 to 5 knots, generally from 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$; after heavy rains 5, sometimes 6. From high tides there is a very little ebb, but a rapid flood, 4 miles an hour up

to the Brush, and 6 miles through the bridge. The flood tide lasts here for 5 hours, and the ebb 7. It is high water at Breydon when it is half ebb at the bridge. There are three hours' difference in the tides between the harbour's mouth and the upper part of the Breydon water, and about half an hour between the Brush and the bridge, the distance being $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The tide moves along the coast about 3 miles an hour.

To preserve the piers and embankments in a sound condition, and to keep up a sufficient depth of water in the channel, are the two requirements needed to maintain the haven in a state of efficiency. Naturally, any obstructions to the full unimpeded ebb and flow of the tidal waters are injurious. One of the chief obstructions was the narrow water way of the old drawbridge, removed in 1856.

Another obstruction still exists, occasioned by the accommodation of the haven being insufficient for the commerce of the port, and instead of lying lengthwise against the quay the shipping are crowded together broadside to the stream, impeding its flow. This evil has arisen from the encroachments permitted years ago by the authorities at the two extremes of the quay. The larger steamers, from their length, would block it up, and are obliged to lie lengthways. Whilst this is taking place at the upper end, a similar blockade frequently exists at the harbour mouth. If the wind is northward vessels become crowded at the Brush. As many as 50 sail have lain there waiting to go out with a favorable wind and tide, and they have had to be in tiers 5 or 6 deep, exposed to collision with laden vessels coming in, and being caught by the eddy formed in the Brush at that part.

The depth of water alongside the quay is about 8 feet, and farther out in mid-stream 10 or 12 feet. As the foundations of the greater part of the quay are of wood, it is impracticable to dredge to a greater depth. The only quay with stone foundations is the Trinity Wharf. According to Manship, the quay was paved with stone in 1610.

The course of the Yare between Yarmouth and Norwich is very devious, presenting a succession of projections and indentations varying from 100 feet to 200 yards, the river's breadth frequently altering 100 feet within 200 or 300 yards, its average width, taken at every quarter of a mile, ranging from 90 to 240 feet, these irregularities influencing in proportion the force of the current and the depth, momentum, and scouring power of the water. In no part is it less than about 11 feet deep, and in some places there is a depth of 19 or 20 feet. The windings of the river greatly impede the flow of the tide, so much so that it is not high water at Norwich until five or six hours after it is high water at the Yarmouth piers.

From the Norwich Foundry Bridge to Wittingham, a distance of $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles, is the shallowest part of the river, varying from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 9 feet, from Wittingham to Burgh Flats, at the mouth of the Yare, a distance of 22 miles, is an abundant depth of water, nowhere less than 10, and in many places 15 feet. At the Burgh Flats, the junction of the river with Breydon, the water suddenly shoals from 13 feet to $3\frac{1}{2}$ within a distance of 200 yards.

The depth of the Breydon water varies considerably. Along the south side the channel is 9 or 10 feet deep at low water. A large portion of the north-eastern end, lying along the railway is dry at low water, in others the depth varies from 10 feet in the channel to 3 feet on the northwest side. At the western end it becomes very shallow over a wide extent called the Burgh Flats lying below Burgh Castle. This shoaling has been termed the bar of the Yare or Norwich river, and is caused by the junction of the Yare and Waveney which meet at right angles, thereby diminishing the force of the stream and causing the deposition in the ebbs, of the mud previously carried down in suspension by the two streams. Another shoal called the Knowl, produced by similar causes, lies at the junction of the Bure with the Breydon. Of late years the Breydon is believed to have become shallower, but dredging to a considerable extent has been carried on under the direction of Capt. Smyth.

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